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ABSTRACT

The first two years of a study of the development of bilingual language proficiency are reported in separate volumes. The core of the work during this period was the development of a model of language proficiency. Other related studies addressed topics such as the relationship between aspects of language proficiency and scoring methodology on proficiency tests; the role of native language transfer in some of the written production data gathered; the relationship between language use patterns, language attitudes, and proficiency in English and Portuguese in Toronto; and ethnographic aspects of a francophone school and a Chinese community. The development and extensive piloting of an observation instrument called COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) designed to capture the communicative orientation of a variety of second language classrooms is also described in detail. Further project activities for years 3-5 are outlined. Extensive related materials appended to the first year report include papers on the specifications and use of a factor analysis model; proficiency tests developed by the project; report of a preliminary observation scheme; a questionnaire for 12th grade students of Portuguese background; and 3 conference reports. The separately bound appendices to the second year report include, among other project-related papers, a discussion of issues regarding coding speech data; the COLT observation scheme and teacher questionnaire; tests and questionnaires used in the Portuguese study, and a detailed account of the Chinese community/school study. (MSE)

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY:

Interim Report on the First Year of Research

Submitted to the SSHRCC
by the Principal Investigators
and Staff of the Project

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I INTRODUCTION

This report provides an interim summary of our activities and accomplishments during the first year of the project, beginning September 15, 1981. The report summarizes our progress to date in the investigation of three main issues identified in the original proposal: (1) proficiency, (2) treatment, and (3) environment. There is no attempt to restate rationales that were elaborated in the proposal, as no serious departure from that perspective has occurred.

1. Staff - Year 1

(a) Principal Investigators:

Patrick Allen
Ellen Bialystok
Jim Cummins
Raymond Mougeon
Merrill Swain

(b) Project Managers:

Ellen Bialystok (80%)
Sharon Lapkin (50%)

(c) Researchers:

Jane Appelt, Graduate Assistant (May - June, 1982)	editing computer files
Glenda Au, 50% (from September 15 - February 15)	Chinese linguistics, material development, sociolinguistics
Christian Ducharme, 100% (from September 15 - July 31)	French linguistics, material development, sociolinguistics
Maria Fröhlich, 60% (from January 18, 1982)	classroom observation
Gila Hanna, 50%	experimental design and analysis
Birgit Harley, Graduate Assistant (from June 1 - July 31, 1982)	French linguistics, material development
Mary Lou King, 100%	experimental design and analysis, material development

(c) Researchers (continued):

Jose Lopes, 50%	Portuguese linguistics, material development, sociolinguistics
Greta Shamash, 50%	material development, testing
Nina Spada, Graduate Assistant	classroom observation, material development
Virginia Won, 50% (from February 15, 1982)	Chinese linguistics, material development, sociolinguistics

2. Activities

The following timetable reflects the major areas of focus across the year.

September - October	Orientation, familiarize new staff with research plans, lectures, workshops, and consultants
October - March	Material development, pilot testing, revision of model
March - May	Testing in schools
April - September	Data scoring and entry
January - September	Classroom observation: review of literature, conceptual development of observation categories, and classroom visits
September	Development of questionnaires for the environmental study.

3. Planning Seminars and Colloquia

To familiarize the staff with the theoretical background of the project and existing empirical evidence, a series of colloquia was held. The first of these, on September 18, given by Ellen Bialystok, was called 'A psycholinguistic framework for examining second language proficiency'. Following the presentation, a response and seminar on 'Current issues in second language learning' were given by Dr. Stephen Krashen of the University of Southern California. On September 21, Jim Cummins and Daina Green of the Modern Language Centre discussed 'Linguistic interdependence among Japanese and Vietnamese immigrant students'. On September 28, Merrill Swain and Gila Hanna presented a summary of the French immersion data. On October 1, Dr. Andrew Cohen, Hebrew University of Jerusalem (guest lecturer), offered a colloquium titled 'Mentalistic approaches to second language research'. Two colloquia were given on October 27: first Raymond Mougeon discussed 'Bilingual proficiency among Franco-Ontarians -- theory, methods and data', and then Dr. R. Y. Bourhis, of McMaster University, spoke on 'Ethnolinguistic vitality -- theory, methods and data'.

4. Consultants

Three consultants were invited to spend one or two week sessions with us in which they worked closely with project staff and delivered a series of formal lectures on a topic relevant to our work.

The first consultant was Dr. Lyle Bachman of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign who was invited on the basis of his expertise in factor analysis. Dr. Bachman spent two weeks with us, from October 5 to October 16. During this time he offered a mini-course in factor analysis to the project staff. In addition he consulted with individual project members on specific issues.

The second invited consultant was Dr. Tove Skutnabb-Kangas, University of Roskilde, Denmark, who spent one week in Toronto during January. Dr. Skutnabb-Kangas delivered a series of lectures on social, cultural, and political aspects of language learning.

Finally, Dr. Christina Bratt Paulston, University of Pittsburgh, was invited to spend the week of February 1-5. Dr. Paulston lectured about ethnomethodology and ethnography, and consulted with the staff members working on the classroom observation studies.

5. Other Visitors

During the year, a number of other visitors gave colloquia on topics of importance to the Project:

November 16, 1982	Dr. Ellen Bouchard Ryan, Visiting Scholar, Modern Language Centre. Topic: 'Metalinguistic development in children'.
January 4, 1982	Dr. Mark Clarke, University of Colorado at Denver. Topic: 'Levels of linguistic analysis (syntactic, propositional structure) in minority language children'.
February 4, 1982	Dr. Peter Nelde, Research Centre on Multilingualism, Brussels. Topic: 'Language contact and language shift in Brussels: Problems of multilingualism'.
February 24, 1982	Prof. Gordon Wells, University of Bristol. Topic: 'Observing linguistic interaction in homes and classrooms'.
March 17, 1982	Dr. Helmut Zobl, University of Moncton. Topic: 'An inside view of second language: Learner - language'.
March 25, 1982	Dr. Grace Guthrie, ARC Associates. Topic: 'Classroom ethnography'.
March 25, 1982	Dr. Larry Guthrie, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development. Topic: 'Description of classroom processes'.
April 2, 1982	Dr. Fred Genesee, McGill University. Topic: 'Sociolinguistic and social psychological factors in cross-cultural communication'.
May 25, 1982	Michael Breen, University of Lancaster. Topic: 'What is communicative language teaching and how would we know it when we see it?'
June 16, 1982	Prof. Christopher Brumfit, University of London Institute of Education and Visiting Scholar, Modern Language Centre. Topic: 'Educational values, teaching methodology and research in communicative language teaching'.
August 20, 1982	Jan Curtis, University of California, Davis. Topic: 'Language and literacy development among minority children: The home-school connection'.

6. Conference and Research Reports

Several members of the project attended meetings of relevance to our ongoing work. Reports of four conferences, the TESOL 1982 Convention (Appendix E), the Fifth International Symposium on Educational Testing (Appendix F), Language at Home and at School and the Ninth World Congress on Reading (Appendix G), are attached to this report. Also appended (Appendix H) is a paper entitled "The Use of a Factor-Analytic Model for Assessment of Lingitudinal Language Achievement Data" by Gila Hanna which she presented at the symposium on educational testing. A report on further research conducted by Ellen Bialystok and Ellen Bouchard Ryan on metalinguistic awareness among children in French immersion programs is currently in preparation.

7. Search for Post-doctoral Fellows

A search for candidates for post-doctoral fellowships on the project was conducted in advertisements submitted at the end of 1981 or in early 1982 to the following publications: CAUT Bulletin, University Affairs, TESOL Newsletter, The Linguistic Reporter, TESL Canada Newsletter, Contact (TESL Ontario). Dr. Monica Heller whose dissertation was carried out under the direction of Professor John Gumperz at the University of California, Berkeley, was offered a position. The search for another part-time post-doctoral fellow is continuing.

II PROFICIENCY STUDIES

1. Model of Language Proficiency

The basis of the proficiency studies is a matrix which identifies the skills that underlie language proficiency and are responsible for language use in a variety of contexts. The relationships among these skills form the basis of language proficiency. The empirical hypothesis is that these relationships will differ for native speakers and for language learners, and for learners in different social contexts. These differences are manifested in the various types and degrees of achievement attained by language learners under different conditions. In our model of proficiency, these skills are referred to as 'traits'.

The primary distinction in the model is among the three traits -- grammatical competence, discourse competence, and sociolinguistic competence. (A fuller discussion of these is given in the grant proposal.) The assumption is that learners may develop competence in any of these areas relatively independently of the others, that learners and native speakers will differ in their relative mastery of these skills, and that these skills are involved to different degrees in specific language use tasks, such as conversation or writing.

Another distinction in the model consists of procedures for testing these three traits. Following Bachman and Palmer (1981), a multi-method multi-trait design was adopted to sort out the effects of the three language skills (traits) and the procedures for testing them (methods). While the original intention was to test a four-method three-trait model (see Appendix A), which required a total of 24 different tests, several months of intensive theoretical and practical work proved this paradigm to be neither manageable nor viable.

The practical problem centred on the need to measure each matrix cell with two tests and the requirement that all subjects in the study complete all tests. Accordingly the students who participated would each have to complete 24 tests, some of them being lengthy, and about one third of them being individual oral interviews. In addition, each matrix cell increases the number of subjects required to test the model. Such requirements were impossible to meet.

The theoretical problem was that the original model implied a symmetry of trait involvement in language uses such as conversation, reading, and writing which was clearly not the case. Our model posits a continuum ranging from 'context-embedded' uses of language, where the communicative activity is supported by a wide range of contextual and interpersonal cues, to 'context-reduced' uses where the range of contextual cues is very much less. Casual conversation and academic writing are examples of language uses at the two extremes of this continuum. However, this continuum is clearly not independent of methods of testing. A writing task, for example, is never as contextualized as a conversation, and while a test might be contrived to approximate such values, its relationship to either real conversation or real writing is unclear. It seemed more reasonable to select tests that naturally tapped certain traits than to contrive tests that might be uninterpretable simply to maintain the symmetry of a model.

Only three of the four methods were retained; these were judged to be both maximally distinct from each other and potentially most effective in empirically distinguishing the three traits. The three methods chosen were (1) oral production, (2) multiple choice test, and (3) written production.

The nine cells (3 methods x 3 traits) are shown in Table 1 and the name of the test used to assess each cell is provided. These tests are discussed further in the next section and appended to the report (Appendix B).

2. Testing Materials

All tests were developed or adapted by the research officers of the project team according to the specifications of the model. All three methods were designed to test the same or similar linguistic features within a particular trait.

Table 1

Matrix of Traits and Methods and Test Used to Assess Each

Trait

Traits / Methods	Grammatical	Discourse	Socio-linguistic
Oral production	1,1 Interview	1,2 Movie retelling and discussion	1,3 Slide-tape situations
Multiple choice	2,1 "Test de Grammaire"	2,2 "Discours à Choix Multiple"	2,3 "Socio-linguistique"
Written production	3,1 "Rédaction française" Narrative: Au secours Letter: La bicyclette	3,2 "Rédaction française" Narrative: Aux voleurs Letter: Le chien	3,3 "Ecrire en français"

The procedure for test development began with the research team generating ideas for methods and sample items. Following discussion and screening by the project staff, the promising methods were developed into test items. After further intensive discussion and detailed review, items were revised and eventually compiled into tests.

The tests thus developed were then pilot tested in English or French with grade 6 students and modified according to the results. In this review the items were examined with respect to the level of difficulty, the underlying theory of the model, grammaticality, discourse and sociocultural validity.

The items that had been developed in English were translated into French and examined by several native speakers. These translated tests were then pilot tested in a grade 6 French immersion class in Toronto.

Further modifications based both on content and on statistical considerations were made where necessary and the items were then typed in final form and printed.

Listening items were recorded by a female native French speaker in the OISE studio under the supervision of Mr. Joe Barr. Graphic work and photography were done by research officers on the team.

The following section is a description of the instruments designed to test the three traits: grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic competence.

(a) Grammatical competence

This trait was construed to consist of rules of morphology and syntax, with a main focus on verbs and prepositions.

Oral production (Appendix B:1,1). This method is a structured interview which embeds 36 standardized questions in a conversation. The topics are concrete and familiar: for example, the school and school activities, the child's tastes, hobbies, favourite seasons, descriptions of different experiences, a description of the child's room. Although interviews tend to be formal, the testing situation is made as natural and relaxed as possible for the child. The interviewer pursues any topic in which the child is particularly interested. Only the information arising from answers to the standardized questions, however, is to be evaluated. Questions are designed to elicit knowledge of the verb system (including past, present, future and conditional tenses) and prepositions.

Multiple choice (Appendix B:2,1). This test consists of 45 items that assess knowledge of syntax, prepositions, personal pronouns, verb morphology, verb and adjective agreement, and verb tense use. The student is asked to choose the correct answer from three alternative responses.

Written production (Appendix B:3,1). In this task the student is presented with a situation and asked to write a short text about it. The first sentence is provided and the student must complete the passage in about 12 lines. The two passages are: one letter (permission d'utiliser une bicyclette) and one composition (Aux secours). Topics are designed to bias for the use of past and present tenses (narration) and the future and/or conditional tenses (letter). Students are given 15 minutes to complete each composition and are not allowed to proceed to the second until the first 15 minutes has elapsed. Students who have extra time are encouraged to review their work. Students who are unable to complete their work in the allotted time are asked to leave it and go on to the second task.

(b) Discourse competence.

This trait is composed of the rules of discourse in terms of the coherence of a group of utterances.

Oral production (Appendix B:1,2). This test is designed to elicit oral narrative and argumentation. The students are shown a short film of 8-10 minutes twice in class. The following day, each child is asked to tell the story of the film to an interviewer who has not seen it. A series of pictures of key events of the film is placed in front of the child to minimize the burden on memory. The interviewer supplies any vocabulary items needed although the major lexical items are provided on the pictures. Following the narration, the child is asked to answer a series of questions calling for the expression and defense of an opinion. The interview takes approximately 15-20 minutes. The film (The Mole and the Bulldozer) was chosen for its appropriateness for the age group of the subjects (10-11 years of age) and for its content. The story illustrates the conflict between modern technology and the preservation of nature.

Multiple choice (Appendix B:2,2). This test consists of 29 items designed to test discourse competence primarily as it relates to coherence. Since it is a written test using connected sentences, some reading comprehension skills are involved. Each item is a small passage of 2-5 sentences. One sentence is omitted from the passage, and the task is to select the appropriate completion from a set of three alternatives. The criterion for selection is primarily the logical coherence of the passage. Intersentential cohesive devices are explicitly incorporated in some items as a basis for choice.

Written Production (Appendix B:3,2). This test is similar to its counterpart in grammatical competence but uses different topics. Again, there is one letter (la permission de garder son chien) and one composition (Aux voleurs). The letter requires the child to support a request with reasoned arguments, while the composition is narrative in character. The two grammatical and two discourse compositions were administered to each student in one of eight possible permutation sequences, randomly assigned (see Table 2). There were two testing sessions separated by a one week period.

(c) Sociolinguistic competence

This component refers to the ability to recognize and use the sociocultural rules pertaining to the appropriateness of utterances within a given sociocultural content.

Oral production (Appendix B:1,3). The basis of this test is a set of slides representing eighteen different situations. Each situation is a particular combination of a function, a level of formality, and the environment. There are three functions (request, suggestion, complaint), three levels of formality (low, medium, high), and two manipulations of the environment (people only, people and physical surroundings) for a total of 3x3x2 = 18 situations (see Table 3). A recorded description of the situations is synchronized with the slides. The staff member explains and illustrates how different registers of speech may be used in different situations. The student then listens to the descriptions and watches the slides. He or she is asked to respond to each situation in the most appropriate way as if addressing the person shown in the slide. The order of high, medium and low levels of formality is randomized for each situation. The order of the six situations is randomized with the restriction that the two situations in-

Table 2

Permutation Sequences for Administration of Grammatical/ Discourse Written Production Tests (3,1; 3,2)

	DAY A	DAY B
ORDER 1	1 2	4 3
2	2 3	1 4
3	3 4	2 1
4	4 1	3 2
5	4 3	1 2
6	1 4	2 3
7	2 1	3 4
8	3 2	4 1

1. Discourse narrative (Aux voleurs)
2. Discourse letter (le chien)
3. Grammatical narrative (Au secours)
4. Grammatical letter (la bicyclette)

Table 3

Outline for Slide Set Used in Sociolinguistic Oral Production Test (1,3)

Function

	Request						Suggestion						Complaint					
Level of formality	Low		Medium		High		Low		Medium		High		Low		Medium		High	
Environment	P[1]	S[2]	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S

Notes

1. P indicates slides in which person only varies between levels of formality within a function.
2. S indicates slides in which surrounding and person vary between levels of formality within a function.

volving the same 'function' do not occur consecutively. The final ordering of the 18 slides, which remained constant for all subjects, is presented in Appendix B:1,3.

Multiple choice (Appendix B:2,3). This test of 28 items is designed to test the ability of the student to place an utterance in its proper sociolinguistic context. The items describe a sociocultural situation and the student is asked to select the best of three possible ways to express a given idea in that situation. The items are designed to include both written and spoken language use in varying degrees of formality, and include the identification of certain written styles such as those used in proverbs, publications (journals, encyclopedias, magazines) and public notices. Before starting to test, the distinction between oral and written language is made to the class and the students are made to understand that the register of the distractors is the important consideration, not their grammaticality. Each item is scored according to the degree of appropriateness of the chosen response, with values ranging from 0 to 3 points. As such, an incorrect response could be given partial marks. Scoring is based on correspondence to native speaker data.

Written production (Appendix B:3,3). This test is composed of three different writing tasks, varying in their demand for formality. It consists of one formal request letter to a public organization and two notes. The order of presentation of the three writing tasks is varied. A student could write the two notes followed by the letter or the letter followed by the two notes, where the order of the notes could be varied in both of these situations. Total duration of the test is 30 minutes (15 minutes for the letter and 7½ minutes for each note). As with the grammatical and discourse compositions, the student is asked to wait until the allotted time is up before going on to the next task.

3. Design and Testing Plan

The testing plan needed to take into account as many of the practical and theoretical constraints as possible, yet still be valuable for any future analyses with respect to testing of the proficiency model using confirmatory factor analysis. The practical constraints were:

1. The testing should be restricted to a maximum of four hours (one hour before the March break and the remaining three hours shortly after the March break). This total of four hours did not include the oral tests which were administered individually.
2. The students should not be asked to write the same test on two different occasions (i.e., no retesting).
3. Because they are costly to administer, and require 15 to 30 minutes per testee, the oral production tests should be given to at most one third of the students. The same one third of the students had to be tested on all three oral production tests (cells 1,1; 1,2; 1,3).

In addition to the above practical constraints, an important requirement of the design of the proficiency study was that it should permit an adequate assessment of the quality of each test. Such an assessment was seen as a prerequisite to future testing of the proficiency model as a whole. While the reliability of the multiple choice tests could be tested by item analyses, that of the open-ended tests would require the use of the generalizability procedure (Bolus et al., no date).

With respect to the written production tests, this requirement entailed the obtaining of at least four scores from each student in each of the three cells (3,1; 3,2; 3,3). Practical time and motivational constraints ruled out actually administering four different writing tasks in the context of each of the three tests. Instead, the grammar and discourse written production tests were designed as parallel tasks so that the two compositions in the discourse cell could also be scored for grammaticality, and conversely, the two compositions in the grammar cell could also be scored for discourse. In the sociolinguistic written production cell, the two notes could be scored separately, while the letter was designed as a comparable sociolinguistic task to the letter in the grammatical written production cell, which could then also be scored from a sociolinguistic perspective, providing the necessary four scores in the sociolinguistic cell.

For assessment of the reliability of the oral production tests (1,1; 1,2; 1,3), wherever possible two similar test items were designed to assess control of the same linguistic feature within the context of each test.

4. Subjects and Testing Procedures

The study was conducted with a total of 198 students. Of these, 175 in six classes were grade 6 students from the early immersion program in the Ottawa Board of Education who had a minimum of 50 per cent French instruction at the grade 6 level. The remaining 23 students were a group of grade 6 native French speakers from a regular French school in Montreal. The native speaker data were not intended for use in statistical comparisons, but for a rough indication of the appropriateness and level of difficulty of the tests, as well as a check on their content validity.

The data were collected over a seven-week period from March 15 to May 15, 1982. The six multiple choice and written production tests were each scheduled to take 30 minutes of class time and were administered to the whole class. Whenever possible, these periods were scheduled at the same time each day on two consecutive days of the week (i.e. two tests per week over three weeks).

An attempt was made to hold the order of administration of the different written tests constant. For the immersion classes this was: grammatical-discourse written production -- session A, grammatical multiple choice, grammatical-discourse written production -- session B, sociolinguistic multiple choice, sociolinguistic written production and discourse multiple choice. In the case of the native speakers, the above order of the tests was not adhered to.

Whenever possible, alternative sessions were provided for students who were absent on the day of testing. During these sessions, the tests were administered in the same manner as had been used in the classroom (instructions, time constraints, etc.). Tests written during any one of these sessions were however separately coded and can be removed from the analysis if necessary. The order of administration of the tests for these students could not always be held constant.

The oral production tests were administered to 12 students from each class, representing a little over one third of the students in order to assure an adequate sample for computing correlations and to compensate for inevitable loss of data during testing and marking. These students were chosen at random, after first eliminating those who spoke French at home and those with foreseeable absences within the testing period. An attempt was made to insure that these 12 students completed all nine of the written and oral tests in the matrix.

Oral testing took place in a separate room where there was little likelihood of being disturbed. The selected students were sent to the room individually to meet the interviewer. After completing the interview, the student returned to class and sent the next candidate.

Interviews were designed to take a maximum of 15-20 minutes and were scheduled when possible, and at the discretion of the classroom teachers. Due to the scheduling constraints and the necessity of administering the discourse interview on the day following the viewing of the film, the order of administration of the oral tests varied across subjects.

5. Scoring Procedures

Apart from the three multiple-choice tests where standard scoring procedures were applied (see page 15 for scoring of the sociolinguistic multiple-choice test), special scoring procedures have so far been designed for three of the six remaining tests in the matrix:

(a) the grammatical written production test (Appendix B:3,1);
(b) the discourse written production test (Appendix B:3,2);
(c) the sociolinguistic oral production test (Appendix B:1,3).

(a) Grammatical written production test

Grammatical scoring of written compositions has been carried out based on five categories: errors in syntax, errors in prepositions, non-homophonous verb errors, homophonous verb errors, range of prepositions appropriately used. A brief description of how scores were arrived at in each category follows. The grammatical scoring included those compositions written in the context of the discourse written production test (cell 3,2).

1. *Syntax*. Errors involving permutation of syntactic elements, or substitution, omission, or addition of syntactic elements other than prepositions, are tallied to produce a general syntax error score for each composition. At the same time, in order to be able to assess syntactic accuracy in proportion to the overall length of the composition, a count of finite

verbs (as an approximate indicator of number of clauses) is carried out.

2. *Preposition errors.* Errors of substitution, omission, addition, and amalgamation of prepositions are calculated separately to give an error score for prepositions in relation to the number of obligatory contexts provided for prepositions.

3. *Non-homophonous verb errors.* Verb forms that are not only incorrect in written form but would also 'sound wrong' if spoken aloud (e.g. nous partent) are categorized as non-homophonous verb errors. Included in this category are errors in auxiliary, tense, and number and person, seen in relation to the total number of verb forms produced.

4. *Homophonous verb errors.* This category comprises spelling errors in verb forms that would not sound incorrect if spoken aloud: e.g., je dit, pour donnait. As with category 3, such errors are tallied in relation to the total number of verb forms produced.

5. *Range of prepositions.* A sum total and list of the different prepositions (apart from à and de) appropriately used is arrived at.

In all categories, the grammaticality of an element is determined with reference only to the sentence in which the element occurs, ignoring the wider discourse context.

(b) Discourse written production test

Preliminary scoring procedures for this test have been designed and are currently being piloted with written compositions. Scores are based on a rating scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high) in three discourse categories: logical sequence, rhetorical -- organization and structure, and reference -- anaphora.

Scorers will be provided with models of high, low, and medium-scoring compositions in each category, on which to base their ratings.

1. *Logical sequence*. This category involves an assessment of the logical development of each composition, including the appropriate use (or lack of use) of conjunctions and logical connectors, the sequence of tenses, and the presence or absence of key elements in the logical structure of an event or argument.

2. *Rhetorical -- organization and structure*. This category concerns the rhetorical structure of the composition: for example, whether a composition has a closing (opening is provided), whether there is appropriate use of syntactic variation, whether a narrative or argument is developed in any detail.

3. *Reference -- anaphora*. In this category, consideration is given to how accurately and clearly pronouns and other noun phrases realize referents, and whether certain nouns are unnecessarily repeated where pronouns (or other nouns) should have been used.

(c) The sociolinguistic oral production test

Scoring of this test is currently underway. It is designed to determine the extent to which linguistic markers of formal social register are appropriately produced in a variety of situations. The appropriate use (or non-use) of such markers of formal register is determined by reference to native-speaker usage in the situations tested. These situations vary on dimensions such as the relative social status of the addressee vis-à-vis the testee, and how familiar the addressee is to the testee. Based on an analysis of native-speaker responses, exemplars of formal markers and several contexts in which such linguistic markers of formal register could potentially occur have been isolated: for example, utterance openings, personal pronouns, mood and syntax of the verb phrase, tense, lexicon. The use of formal markers in each of these contexts is noted and a formality score for each situation is arrived at. Thus depending on the relative formality of a particular situation, a 'perfect score' would be high for a formal situation, low for an informal situation, and in-between for a neutral situation.

6. Appraisal of Multiple-Choice Tests

This section consists of an explanation of the procedures used to appraise the reliability of the multiple-choice tests and a discussion of the results of this appraisal.

The three multiple-choice tests of grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic competence have been analyzed through the following procedures.

Item analysis (LERTAP). This procedure provides a number of statistics on each test item. Among them are: the number of persons choosing each option; the percentage choosing the correct option (a measure of difficulty of an item); the point-biserial and biserial correlations with the test and subtest (a measure of the power of the item to discriminate between those who do well and those who do poorly on the test). In addition it provides the Hoyt's estimate of reliability for the total test and for each subtest, as well as an estimate of the reliability of the total test treated as a composite of the subtests (Cronbach's alpha).

SPSS reliability. This procedure overlaps LERTAP, but provides important additional information on the contribution of individual items to the test. In particular, it estimates for each item the 'alpha if item deleted', a statistic which helps the user decide whether an item might better be deleted from the test.

Analysis of variance. This analysis was used to determine whether there were significant differences among the six immersion classes participating in the testing.

Boxplot - Minitab. The distributions of scores on the tests were plotted for each group and checked for outliers.

(a) Grammatical multiple-choice test (Appendix B:2,1)

The following results are based on data from 161 immersion students and 23 native French speakers attending a regular French school.

Immersion data. The grammatical multiple-choice test consisted of 45 items grouped into four subtests: Prepositions (13 items), Tense (14 items), Verbs: agreement and spelling (10 items), and Miscellaneous (8 items).

An item analysis of the test with all subtests included was performed, assigning a weight of 1 to a correct response and a zero to an incorrect one. Three successive analyses were carried out, (a) with and (b) without the Correction-For-Chance option and (c) with deletion of some items. The resulting reliability coefficients were respectively (a) 0.62, (b) 0.62 and (c) 0.58. The mean biserial correlation, using the total score as the criterion was 0.32 with standard deviation 0.15. Descriptive statistics for the 45-item test are shown in Table 4 and Figure 1.

The contribution of each item to the total reliability of the test was further examined using the SPSS Reliability procedure ignoring the division into subtests. The analysis indicated that six items (items 4, 7, 13, 20, 26, and 40) had very low correlations with the total test and that the reliability of the test would increase if they were deleted. When these six items were deleted the reliability coefficient based on the 39 remaining items was slightly improved to 0.67.

Since all of the four subtests mentioned previously yielded low reliability coefficients (0.16 to 0.42) all subsequent analyses were carried out on the total test, rather than on these subtests.

An analysis of variance showed no significant differences between classes on the total test. This analysis was carried out after examining the distribution of the scores for each class and deleting a few outliers.

Native speaker data. The Hoyt estimate of reliability for a sample of 23 francophone students was 0.72. The mean score for this group of native French speakers was higher than the mean score for immersion (see Table 4).

(b) Discourse multiple-choice test (Appendix B:2,2)

The data were from 166 immersion students and 23 native French speakers.

Immersion data. The discourse test consisted of 29 items. Prior to the analysis, item 20 was deleted because of a typographical error. A weight of 1 was assigned to the correct answer for each item, and a weight of zero to an incorrect one.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Grammatical Multiple Choice
Immersion and Native Speaker Data

Statistic	Immersion students	Native Speaker
No. of items	45	45
No. of students	161	23
Lowest score	16	27
Highest score	41	42
Mean score	27.48	37.99
standard deviation	4.67	3.99
Mean biserial correlation	0.32	
standard deviation	0.15	
Reliability coefficient	0.62	0.72
standard error of measurement	2.84	2.08

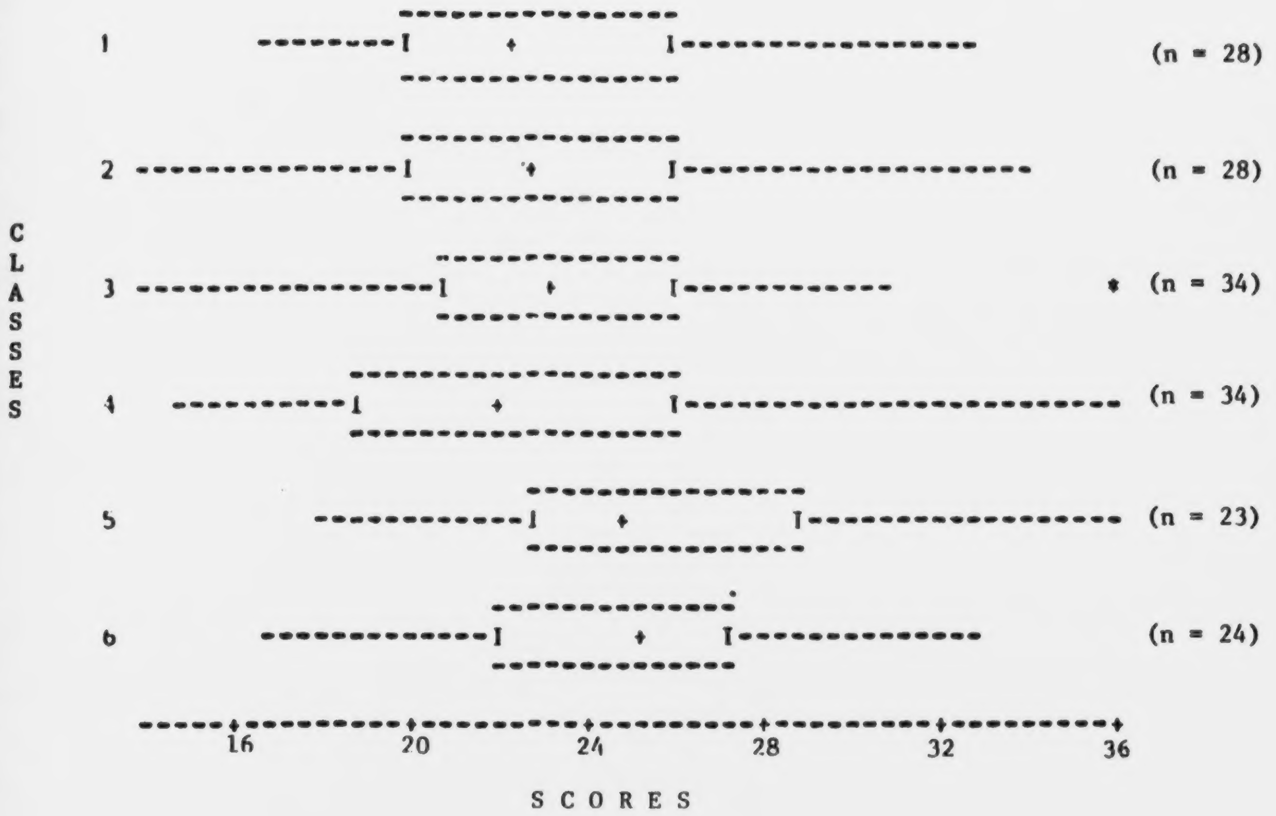

Figure 1. Distribution of scores on Grammatical Multiple Choice (39 items) for six Immersion classes. An asterisk indicates an outlier.

The item analysis of the total test yielded a Hoyt estimate of reliability of 0.75. The level of item difficulty was adequate, and the mean biserial correlation was 0.51 with standard deviation 0.13.

The procedure boxplot (see Figure 2) was used to detect outliers (students with unusually high or low scores). One score was deleted from the following analyses of variance. A significant difference between classes was found ($p < .01$). A Scheffe's test of pairwise comparisons showed a significant difference between classes 1 and 6 only.

It seemed possible that classes 1 and 2 would differ from the other classes, since they were both undergoing additional testing and had a new teacher taking over in mid-testing. Therefore the contrast (classes 1 and 2) vs. (classes 3, 4, 5, and 6) was tested. This contrast was significant ($t = 4.18$, $p < .001$). Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 5.

Native speaker data. The mean score is higher than that of the immersion group. The standard deviation is only 2.84 and the range of scores is 10 points (as opposed to 22 for immersion) indicating that there is a good deal of agreement among native speakers as to the appropriate responses. This test was not designed to differentiate among the native speakers, as is further reflected in the relatively low reliability coefficient of 0.50.

(c) Sociolinguistic multiple-choice test (Appendix B:2,3)

Data were from 170 immersion students and 23 native French speakers.

Immersion data. Although item #3 was found to have a typographical error in a distractor after the test administration had been completed, it was retained in the analyses.

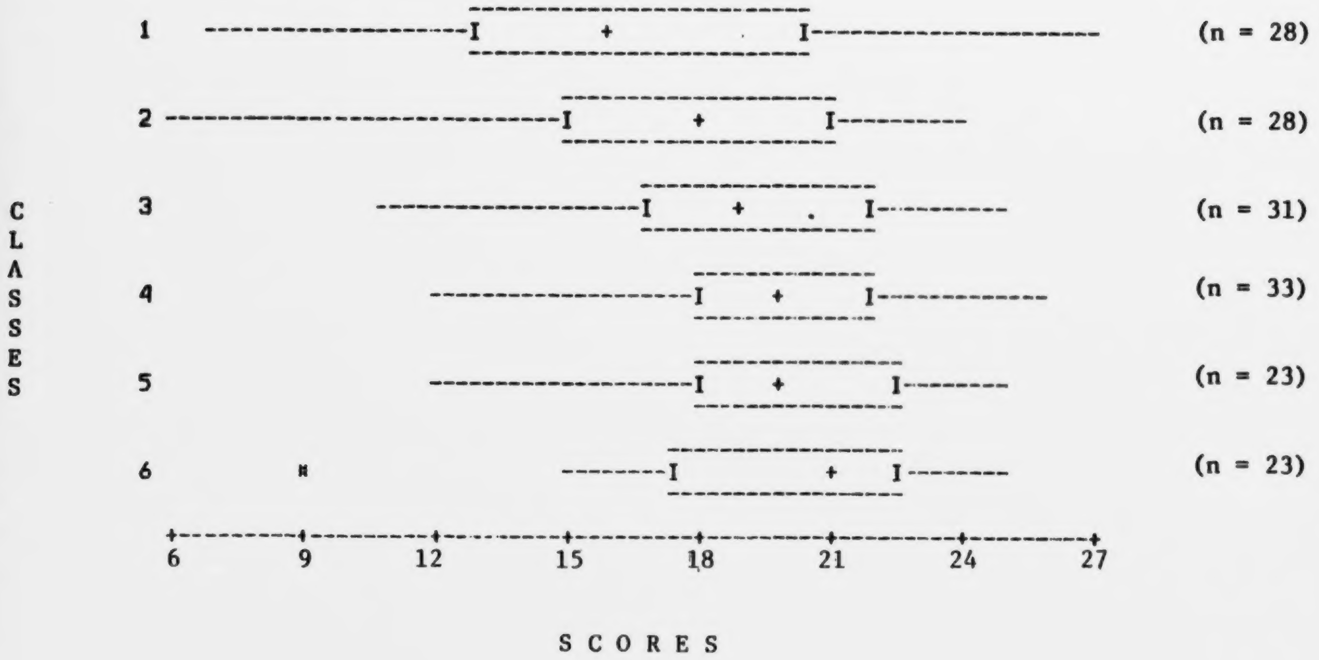

Figure 2. Distribution of scores on Discourse Multiple Choice (27 items) for six Immersion classes. An asterisk indicates an outlier.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Discourse Multiple Choice
Immersion and Native Speaker Data

Statistic	Immersion students		Native Speaker
No. of items	28	27	28
No. of students	166	166	23
Lowest score	6	6	16
Highest score	28	27	26
Mean score	18.82	18.61	20.96
standard deviation	4.25	4.22	2.84
Mean biserial correlation	0.51	0.52	
standard deviation	0.13	0.11	
Reliability coefficient	0.75	0.75	0.50
standard error of measurement	2.10	2.06	1.98

This test differed from the others in that the possible responses were not correct or incorrect, but rather more appropriate or less appropriate. Before testing, weights were assigned to the options for each item based on pilot data from native French speakers in Toronto and on discussions among francophones in the Modern Language Centre. Minor changes were made to some items, and one item was deleted. The final test consisted of 28 items; each item had three options, weighted for appropriateness.

An item analysis was performed on the data using the preassigned weights. The Hoyt estimate of reliability was 0.57. SPSS Reliability was performed to determine which items, if any, were unsatisfactory. On successive runs, items 18 and 24, item 23, and finally item 7 were deleted. Alpha increased from 0.57 on the first analysis (28 items) to 0.63 on the fourth (24 items).

An effort was made to improve the reliability of the test by changing the weighting of the options. After an intensive discussion of individual items and a review of the pilot data, the actual weights assigned to some of the options were adjusted, but the order of appropriateness was left unchanged. The revised weighting, using all 28 items, did not improve the reliability significantly. Table 6 presents descriptive statistics for both original and revised weights.

The distribution of scores (see Figure 3) on the total 28-item test with revised weights showed one outlier in each of classes 4 and 6. An analysis of variance (with outliers deleted) revealed a significant difference between classes ($p < .05$). A Scheffe test of pairwise comparisons showed that no two groups differed significantly from each other; however, the contrast (classes 1 and 2) vs. (classes 3, 4, 5, and 6) was significant ($t = 2.94$; $p < .01$).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Sociolinguistic Multiple Choice
Original and revised Weightings
Immersion and Native Speaker Data

Statistic	Immersion		Native Speaker	
	Original	Revised	Original	Revised
No. of items	28	28	28	28
No. of students	170	170	23	23
Lowest score	19	15	22	20
Highest score	55	54	52	52
Mean score	35.18	33.08	39.74	38.43
standard deviation	6.84	7.35	8.11	7.99
Maximum possible	60	59	60	59
Mean biserial correlation	0.34	0.34		
standard deviation	0.17	0.17		
Reliability coefficient	0.57	0.58	0.73	0.69
standard error of measurement	4.39	4.71	4.15	4.36

```
                         -------------
        1  --------------I     +     I--------                        (n = 29)
                         -------------

                          ---------------
        2        ---------I   +         I-------------------          (n = 27)
                          ---------------

C                        --------------------
L       3 ---------------I      +           I-------------            (n = 34)
A                        --------------------
S
S                             -------------
E       4         ------------I    +      I-----------------     *    (n = 33)
S                             -------------

                                   ----------
        5               -----------I    +   I-------------            (n = 23)
                                   ----------

                               -------------
        6           -----------I         + I---------------      *    (n = 24)
                               -------------

          ---------+---------+---------+---------+---------+-------
                  21        28        35        42        49

                           S C O R E S
```

Figure 3. Distribution of scores on Sociolinguistic Multiple Choice (28 items) for six Immersion classes. An asterisk indicates an outlier.

Native speaker data. The reliability coefficient for the original weighting and the revised weighting were 0.73 and 0.69 respectively. Descriptive statistics for both weightings are in Table 6. The mean score for native speakers is higher than the mean score for immersion students. However, the scores are spread over 30 points (36 for immersion), indicating that the native speakers varied considerably on their perception of sociolinguistic appropriateness.

(d) Concluding remarks

The scores on these three multiple-choice tests, along with the scores on three oral tests and three essay-type tests, will be used to estimate a variety of multitrait-multimethod models. To this end the correlations among the tests will be calculated. A very important condition for the calculation of such correlations is an adequate level of variability of scores on each test. This condition has been met: the multiple-choice tests do indeed spread the students over the range of scores.

The reliability coefficients yielded by the tests are relatively low. Whether this level of reliability is adequate depends on the use to which the scores are put. With reliability coefficients below 0.75 it is not possible to rank individual students in terms of achievement without a high risk of error. These coefficients are adequate, however, for group comparisons and for the examination of theoretical models that account for the correlations among the various tests.

Scoring of tests other than the multiple-choice tests is underway and G-studies will be conducted to determine the generalizability of results of these open-ended tests of oral and written production.

III CLASSROOM TREATMENT STUDIES

The 'treatment study' of this project began in the middle of January 1982. The objective of this study is to examine the effects of classroom treatment, that is of second language instruction, on the acquisition of the target language. For this purpose an observation instrument is required which can describe essential features of the second language classroom and which can differentiate among various approaches to language teaching, specifically between more structurally and more communicatively oriented approaches. At this initial stage of conceptualization it was decided not to restrict the observation scheme to one specific second language setting or to one age group of students, but rather to maintain a broad perspective and to keep in mind the variety of settings -- English as a second language (ESL), core French and French immersion -- with their specific characteristics.

For theoretical as well as empirical input to the development of observation categories, the researchers began by reviewing a number of existing observation instruments and some of the literature on communicative language teaching and mother tongue development, and by visiting some ESL, core French and French immersion classes.

1. Existing Observation Schemes

The study of teaching and of the multifaceted reality of the classroom has become a growing interest of researchers, teacher trainers and practitioners. As a result, a multitude of observational instruments designed to describe and analyze what goes on "inside the 'Black Box'" (Long, 1980) of the classroom has emerged during the past decades (for overview see Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; Simon and Boyer, 1974). Observation schemes may differ with respect to a great variety of features: for example, type and number of content categories, coding procedures, units of analysis, source of the variables as well as the purpose for which the instrument has been designed (for examples see Long, 1980).

The vast majority of observation schemes is concerned with teacher/student interactions in classrooms where a subject other than language is taught. These instruments examine, for example, the classroom climate and the degrees of direct/indirect teacher influence (Withall, 1949; Flanders, 1970), the roles of the classroom participants in terms of the 'moves' they undertake -- structuring, soliciting, responding, or reacting -- and the 'meanings' which can occur in each movetype (Bellack et al., 1966), the cognitive level of teacher/student interaction (Davis and Tinsley, 1968; Aschner et al., 1965), or the nature of the classroom discourse (Forsyth, 1974; Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975).

The number of observation instruments designed specifically for the foreign/second language classroom, where language is not just the medium but also the focus of instruction, is much smaller. Long (1980) reviews 22 schemes which have been developed in the last 15 years. Again, they all vary in terms of the features mentioned above.

One of the best known instruments is FLINT -- the Foreign Language Interaction Analysis System -- which has been adapted from the widely used Flanders system and slightly extended by Moskowitz (1970, 1971). It was developed to give foreign language teachers objective feedback about teacher/student classroom interaction, focusing specifically on the climate the teacher establishes. The climate is considered to be "a crucial element in the FL classroom, where inhibition and fear of participation may be experienced even by students who never feel this way in any other class" (Moskowitz, 1970:3). The system contains 12 basic categories, seven for teacher behaviours, such as 'deals with feelings', 'uses ideas of students', 'asks questions', 'directs pattern drills', and two student categories -- 'student response, specific', 'student response, open-ended or student initiated', and some other verbal and non-verbal categories (Moskowitz, 1971).

A very simple adaptation of Flanders is the system by Wragg (1970). The main difference between the two schemes is that Wragg identifies the language, that is, the native or target language, in which Flanders' categories occur.

Subsequent observation instruments generally attempt to provide more detailed information about the interaction and to propose categories which capture features theoretically, empirically and/or intuitively relevant to the language classroom. An early example is the system developed by Jarvis (1968) whose categories are organized around different purposes for which language is used in the classroom -- 'reading and writing', 'drill', and 'real' communication:

> ... The implied model assumes that in language skill acquisition the student must proceed through the stages of 'encountering' ... elements of the language, imitating them, manipulating them, and finally using them in innovative real communication language.
>
> (Jarvis, 1968:336)

Examples of frequently occurring categories of many second language observation schemes (e.g. Bialystok et al., 1979; Fanselow, 1977; Mitchell et al., 1981; Naiman et al., 1978; Ullmann and Geva, 1982) are:

- Lesson content or topics/themes (e.g. language, real life, routine procedures, etc.)
- Mode of involvement (e.g. listening, speaking, etc.)
- Use of first or second language
- Addresser and addressee (e.g. teacher addresses whole class or individual student)
- Discourse functions occurring
  in soliciting moves (e.g. requesting information, modelling, requesting opinion, classification, etc.)

in responding moves (e.g. respondent gives complete/ partial response, self-corrects, etc.)

in reacting moves (e.g. teacher corrects implicitly/ explicitly, accepts/rejects response etc.)

- Type of medium used (e.g. linguistic, non-linguistic, paralinguistic)

A few instruments also include the cognitive level of the interaction (e.g. McEwen, 1976; Richards, 1978).

None of the reviewed observation instruments could be adopted in its entirety for the purpose of the present study. However, they were useful in that they confirmed many of our ideas, pointed to gaps and thus assisted us in the development of our own observational and analytical foci.

2. Communicative Language Teaching

Although there is not total agreement in the literature on what constitutes communicative language teaching and how it can be operationalized in the classroom (see, for example, Breen and Candlin, 1980; Brumfit, 1980a, b; Brumfit and Johnson, 1979; Johnson and Morrow, 1981; Littlewood, 1981; Widdowson, 1978; Wilkins, 1976), one of the generally accepted key concepts appears to be that language teaching should not only focus on language forms, but also on different kinds of meanings or 'notions', which the learner may want to express, and 'functions' to which the language can be put (Brumfit, 1980b). It is important that the teacher provide a great deal of opportunity for spontaneous, unpredictable, exploratory (Brumfit, 1980a:95) language production in interactive situations. The classroom has to become the 'forum' for communicative interaction and develop the learner's competence "in an area of cooperative negotiation, joint interpretation, and the sharing of expression" (Breen and Candlin, 1980: 95). Further, the content that is shared or negotiated must be relevant to the students' needs and interests. Brumfit states: "We need to devise a methodology which will enable the learner to use the language, not passively in relation to situations which are imposed by motivations and ideologies not his own, but actively as a product of his own needs" (Brumfit, 1980a:95f).

Thus the learner is seen as an active participant in determining or 'negotiating' classroom activities and curriculum content, frequently sharing and exchanging information with his/her peers, and working in group situations. The learners will have ample opportunity for communicating, that is conveying meaning, with whatever means are available to them, expressing new content not previously practised and talking to each other. They will also have "the opportunity for making mistakes" and will not be over-corrected "in the interest of developing fluent production and comprehension" (Brumfit, 1980a: 126).

Learning through interaction (Wells, 1981), or learning to negotiate meaning in dialogue, is also seen as an essential factor in children's native language development. Thus the conditions promoting effective second language acquisition are seen to closely resemble those of native language acquisition.

3. The Proposed Observation Instrument

In examining the various possibilities for observation categories we started with the assumption that the main task is to characterize classroom in terms of the quality of communicative interaction. For this purpose, it was considered best not to attempt a definition of general concepts such as 'structural language teaching' or 'communicative language teaching', but to compile a list of indicators of communication, each of which can be separately quantified. A combination of scores for the various categories will then enable us to place each class at some point on a communicative continuum.

At present, we are proposing a two-way analysis of the second language classroom:

(a) a description of the activities, that is the distinct teaching/learning units as well as the non-pedagogically motivated interaction units;

(b) an analysis of these activities in terms of seven communicative features.

The description of the activities, or in other words of what teacher and students are actually involved in doing, will refer to the following five superordinate categories:

1. Activity type (e.g. drill, conversation, role-play, dictation, management, etc.)
2. Participant organization (e.g. teacher works with whole class; group work, individual seatwork)
3. Content (e.g. language (grammar, syntax, phonology, etc.); language functions; study skills and strategies; negotiation of activities and learning objectives, themes related to teacher/student personal lives, to academic subjects, etc.)
4. Student skills involved (e.g. listening, writing, etc.)
5. Materials used (type of materials, such as textbook, authentic materials, audio/visual materials, and manner of use -- e.g. rigid or flexible use).

All activities will be timed. A sustained change in any of the first four features appears to mark the boundary of an activity and is expected to be able to serve as an operational definition.

Each activity will be analyzed in terms of seven main communicative features and will receive a 'communicative mean value' out of 5. All features are represented on five-point scales, the end-points of which are hypothesized to indicate a greater quality of communicative experience and interaction in the classroom. Quality of communicative interaction is therefore not characterized by a single feature, but by a complex cluster of interrelated dimensions. The suggested communicative dimensions reflect relevant features of communication inside and outside the classroom. The following dimensions are proposed:

1. *Use of target language.* Is the target language or the student's native language the predominant language of communication?
Scale end-point: High degree of second language use.

2. *Discourse initiation.* Do students ever initiate the interaction and produce 'spontaneous' unelicited discourse or do they only speak when their turns are allocated?
Scale end-point: High frequency of self-initiations.

3. *Information gap.* To what extent is the information requested and/or exchanged new or at least not known in advance to the participants of the classroom interaction?
Scale end-point: Relatively high information gap.

4. *Sustained speech.* Do the student utterances typically consist of a minimal number of clauses or do they engage in sustained speech?
Scale end-point: Sustained speech.

5. *Relative restriction of linguistic form.* Are the students expected to produce specific forms, as in a drill type of exercise, or do they have absolute freedom of choice?
Scale end-point: Unpredictability of form is considered to increase the quality of communicative interaction.

6. *Reaction to message/code.* Is the emphasis on accuracy of linguistic form or on conveying meaning?

Scale end-point: Rare or incidental correction of code.

7. *Extended interaction exchanges.* Are the exchanges between interlocutors restricted to minimal exchange patterns or is there a continuous 'natural flow' of interaction in terms of expansions and development of previous utterances?

Scale end-point: High frequency of extended exchanges.

We are presently in the process of refining these analytical features of communication and breaking them down into more detailed observable speech behaviours which can be coded either directly in the classroom or subsequently by listening to a tape recording of the class observed. A pilot version of the observation instrument has been drafted and extensive pilot testing in a variety of second language programs will shortly be undertaken. An account of the preliminary observation instrument can be found in Appendix C.

IV ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

The goals of the environmental studies are to understand the social and environmental contexts of language learning and academic achievement. In our research, the focus will be on the learning of French and English by children of anglophone, Portuguese-, Cantonese-, and French-speaking backgrounds in Ontario. The first stage in the research is to collect information about the language backgrounds of students, both for the purpose of generating descriptions of particular communities and to select a sample of students to participate in a more detailed study in subsequent years. Sociolinguistic information will be collected for students commencing formal schooling (kindergarten), grade 6 and grade 12. In this way data will be available covering the entire span of formal schooling.

In the first year of the research, a questionnaire was developed and adapted for use in the Portuguese and Cantonese communities in the city of Toronto.

1. Portuguese Language Questionnaire (English version in Appendix D)

The questionnaire that was designed for grade 12 Portuguese students in Toronto was largely based on Raymond Mougeon's 'Written questionnaire - Secondary level' and on the survey instruments developed by the Linguistic Minorities Project of the Institute of Education of the University of London.

This questionnaire emphasizes the important points related to the language use of the students such as language(s) used at home, in school and in the community. This questionnaire also gathers important information concerning: place of birth, family characteristics, age of arrival, years of formal instruction in Portuguese, English and French as well as types of exposure to these languages.

Questions are also asked on students' habitual reading and writing activities and on their aspirations and intentions concerning higher education and professional goals.

The questionnaire was pilot tested with ten grade 12 students at different academic levels (levels 2 to 4). Instructions and question format appeared appropriate insofar as students did not experience any trouble in completing the questionnaire. The amount of time required varied between 15 and 20 minutes. This questionnaire is also to be adapted for use with grade 6 students, and is currently being adapted for use with Cantonese-speaking students. Sociolinguistic information on kindergarten students will be collected mainly from parental interviews in conjunction with the longitudinal home interaction study (see Proposal, environmental study 2).

V CONCLUSIONS

The progress made in the first year of research has provided an important basis for the continuation of the study. Each of the three major areas of investigation was examined to some extent in terms of the emerging model of language proficiency.

In the first several months of the project, intensive theoretical discussion accompanied the ongoing practical problems of designing test items. Although frustrating at times, the need to simultaneously accommodate the theoretical and practical issues resulted in resolutions that were defensible on both grounds. The descriptions of each trait became more detailed and more linguistically based, and the application of each trait to a variety of testing situations was narrowed so that traits were seen as being differentially relevant to different situations. Thus the changes are in the direction of modification and refinement rather than alteration.

The empirical effort in the first year was concentrated on the proficiency studies. Large scale testing with grade 6 immersion students attempted to determine the competence achieved by these students in terms of the three hypothesized traits. Scoring and analysis of test results is currently underway.

The classroom treatment study has made an important beginning to the development of a unique procedure for observing classes in terms of their communicative focus. The system being developed has application to a variety of classes. The continuation of this aspect of the research will require the systematic examination of classroom activities and outcomes in terms of the categories set out by the observation scheme.

Finally, in the environmental study a means has been developed for collecting the relevant data needed to examine the relationship between home and language background factors and academic and language learning success in schools. The questionnaire will be formally introduced to the communities in the early stages of work in Year 2 of the research.

In sum, the first year of research has produced three important products. First is the material for confirming various models of language proficiency relevant to both monolingual and bilingual speakers, this material now consisting of an elaborate series of carefully developed tests. Second is a classroom observation scheme that is capable of evaluating the extent to which language classrooms have a communicative focus. Third is a questionnaire which will provide the basis of selection and detailed study of social environmental factors in language learning. It is the integration of these three lines of study that will begin in Year 2 of our research and continue throughout the remainder of the investigation.

Footnote

[1] Since these models are to be investigated by confirmatory factor analysis using the Lisrel program, the research team has spent some time learning to use the program effectively. To this end a number of analyses were performed on data collected by the Bilingual Education Project. Some of the results are presented in the paper 'The Use of a Factor-Analytic Model for Assessment of Longitudinal Language-Achievement Data' (Appendix H).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SPECIFICATIONS FOR AN INITIAL CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS MODEL

Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project
Proficiency, Studies 2 and 3

Modern Language Centre
Department of Curriculum

Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

15 October 1981

Prepared by Lyle F. Bachman, Project Consultant

DBPP, Study 1
MLC/OISE

Factors in Study

$y_1 - y_{24}$ observed variables (measures)

Primary factors

η_1 = Grammatical competence
η_2 = Discourse competence
η_3 = Sociolinguistic competence
η_4 = Measurement method 1 (Context embedded/unalyzed, productive)
η_5 = Measurement method 2 (Context embedded/unalyzed, receptive)
η_6 = Measurement method 3 (Context reduced/analyzed, productive)
η_7 = Measurement method 4 (Context reduced/analyzed, receptive)

Secondary factors

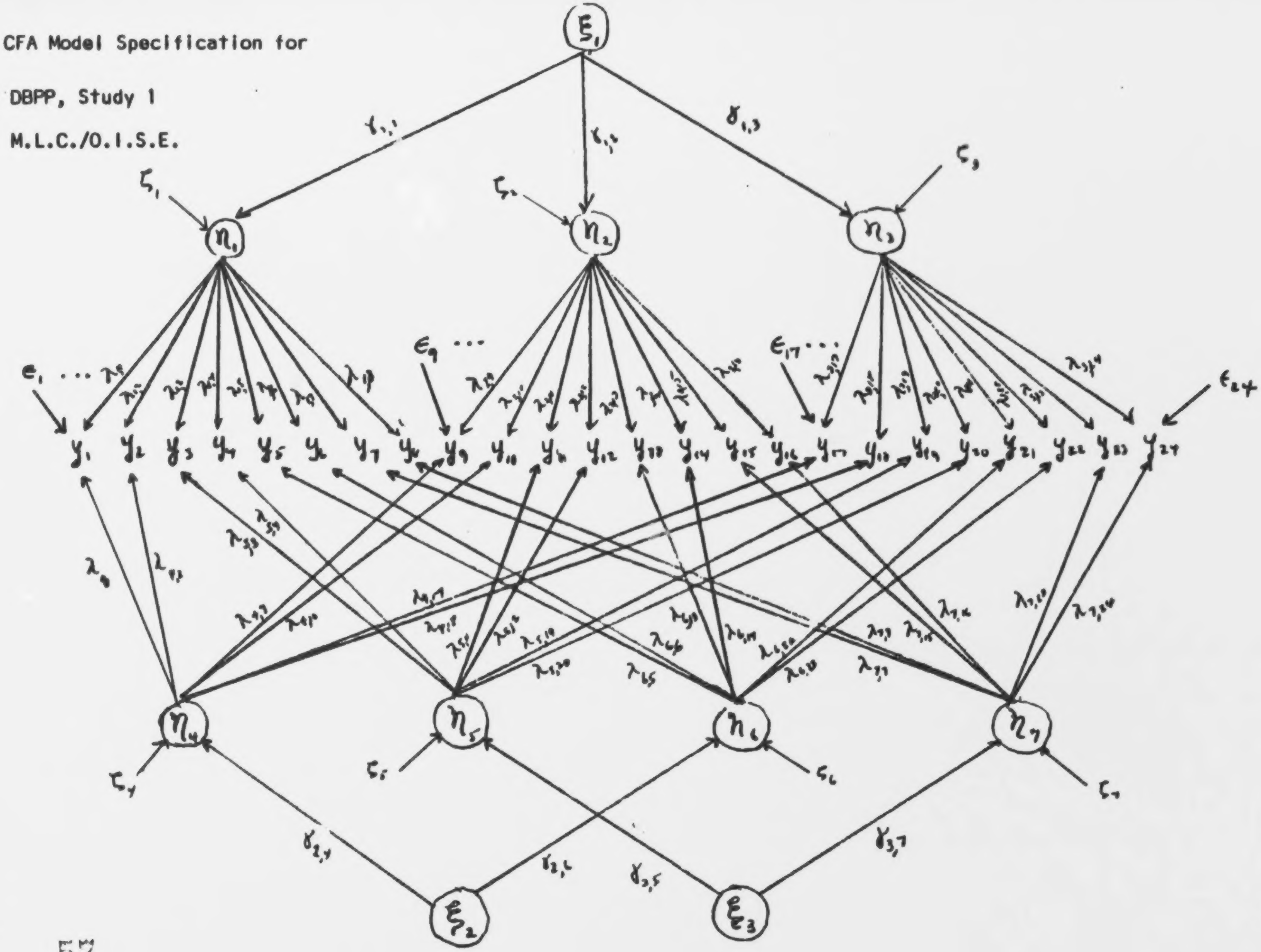
ξ_1 = Strategic competence
ξ_2 = Productive mode
ξ_3 = Receptive mode

A 3.

CFA Model Specification for

DBPP, Study 1

M.L.C./O.I.S.E.


ξ_1
$\gamma_{1,1}$
$\gamma_{1,2}$
$\gamma_{1,3}$
ζ_1
ζ_2
ζ_3
η_1
η_2
η_3
$\epsilon_1 \ldots$
$\epsilon_9 \ldots$
$\epsilon_{17} \ldots$
ϵ_{24}
y_1 y_2 y_3 y_4 y_5 y_6 y_7 y_8 y_9 y_{10} y_{11} y_{12} y_{13} y_{14} y_{15} y_{16} y_{17} y_{18} y_{19} y_{20} y_{21} y_{22} y_{23} y_{24}
$\lambda_{7,16}$
$\lambda_{7,20}$
$\lambda_{7,24}$
η_4
η_5
η_6
η_7
ζ_4
ζ_5
ζ_6
ζ_7
$\gamma_{2,4}$
$\gamma_{2,6}$
$\gamma_{3,5}$
$\gamma_{3,7}$
ξ_2
ξ_3

DBPP, Study 1
M.L.C./O.T.S.E

Model Specifications

$\underset{\sim}{\Sigma}_{yy} = \underset{\sim}{\Lambda}_y \underset{\sim}{\eta} + \underset{\sim}{\epsilon}$ | If $\underset{\sim}{B} = \underset{\sim}{\Phi} = \underset{\sim}{\Psi} = I$,

$\underset{\sim}{B}\underset{\sim}{\eta} = \underset{\sim}{\Gamma}\underset{\sim}{\xi} + \underset{\sim}{\zeta}$ | $\underset{\sim}{\Sigma}_{yy} = \underset{\sim}{\Lambda}(\underset{\sim}{\Gamma}\underset{\sim}{\xi} + \underset{\sim}{\zeta}) + \underset{\sim}{\theta}$.

Parameters to be estimated

$$\underset{\sim}{\Lambda} \quad \begin{array}{c|ccccccc|}
 & \eta_1 & \eta_2 & \eta_3 & \eta_4 & \eta_5 & \eta_6 & \eta_7 \\
1 & \lambda & & & \lambda & & & \\
2 & \lambda & & & \lambda & & & \\
3 & \lambda & & & & \lambda & & \\
4 & \lambda & & & & \lambda & & \\
5 & \lambda & & & & & \lambda & \\
6 & \lambda & & & & & \lambda & \\
7 & \lambda & & & & & & \lambda \\
8 & \lambda & & & & & & \lambda \\
9 & & \lambda & & \lambda & & & \\
10 & & \lambda & & \lambda & & & \\
11 & & \lambda & & & \lambda & & \\
12 & & \lambda & & & \lambda & & \\
13 & & \lambda & & & & \lambda & \\
14 & & \lambda & & & & \lambda & \\
15 & & \lambda & & & & & \lambda \\
16 & & \lambda & & & & & \lambda \\
17 & & & \lambda & \lambda & & & \\
18 & & & \lambda & \lambda & & & \\
19 & & & \lambda & & \lambda & & \\
20 & & & \lambda & & \lambda & & \\
21 & & & \lambda & & & \lambda & \\
22 & & & \lambda & & & \lambda & \\
23 & & & \lambda & & & & \lambda \\
24 & & & \lambda & & & & \lambda
\end{array} \quad = 48$$

$\Theta_\epsilon = \epsilon_1 \quad \epsilon_2 \quad \epsilon_3 \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad \epsilon_{24}$ $= 24$

$\underset{\sim}{B} = \underset{\sim}{I}$

$$\underset{\sim}{\Gamma} \quad \eta \left\{ \begin{array}{c|ccc|}
 & \xi_1 & \xi_2 & \xi_3 \\
1 & \gamma & & \\
2 & \gamma & & \\
3 & \gamma & & \\
4 & & \gamma & \\
5 & & & \gamma \\
6 & & \gamma & \\
7 & & & \gamma
\end{array} \right. \quad = 7$$

Total parameters to be estimated = 79
Elements in $\underset{\sim}{C}$ = 300
df for χ^2 = 221

DBPP, Study 1
MLC/OISE

Note on model specifications for CFA of DBP, Study 1

In order to identify the γ's, it may be necessary to fix one for each ξ at some arbitrary value, e.g. 0.5 initially. Then, either of the estimates of the other(s) can be used to fix a second γ, and obtain estimates for the other(s). One of these can then be used to fix the third γ. In this way, it should be possible to successively approximate the estimates of these parameters. The extent to which these estimates "fit" can be gauged by examining the obtained standard errors and the chi-squares of the successive models.

It should be noted that this iterative approximation of the γ's should follow other modifications in the model. That is, the γ's which are fixed should remain constant until a model which is satisfactory (both statistically and theoretically) in all other respects has been specified.

Another approach is to rescale all of the η's, by setting at least one λ for each η equal to 1.0.

Obviously both of these approaches require making assumptions about the model which may not be justified, and therefore they should be used with caution (if at all). On the practical side, the iterative approximation of the γ's is very costly, and should be weighed against the importance of the outcomes. It would seem, for example, that the presence and/or relative effect of the secondary method factors, "productive" (ξ_2) and "receptive" (ξ_3) -- or context-embedded and context-reduced-- is of lower priority than that of strategic competence (ξ_1). Assuming that you can expect to find correlations among methods, it may be simpler to specify ψ with some free parameters, than specifying secondary factors to account for these.

DBPP, Study 1
MLC/OISE

Model identification

A necessary (but not sufficient) condition for identification is that the number of elements in the input correlation matrix $\underset{\sim}{C}$ be greater than or equal to the number of parameters to be estimated in the model. The number of unique elements in $\underset{\sim}{C}$ is equal to $(n)(n + 1)(\frac{1}{2})$, where n is the number of variables. In the case of 24 variables, this yields 300 unique elements. The number of parameters to be estimated is determined by inspection of the model specifications. Given the number of first-order factors (η's) and their relationships to the observed variables in this model, there are 48 factor loadings (λ's) to be estimated. Associated with each observed variable is a uniqueness (ϵ), so there are 24 uniquenesses to be estimated. Given the number of second-order factors (ξ's) and their relationships to the η's, there are 7 parameters (γ's) to be estimated. The degrees of freedom for the χ^2 test for the model is equal to the difference between the number of elements in $\underset{\sim}{C}$ and the number of free parameters (to be estimated) in the model. Thus, for this model:

Elements in $\underset{\sim}{C}$			=	300
Parameters to be estimated	$\underset{\sim}{\Lambda}$ =	48		
	ϵ =	24		
	$\underset{\sim}{\Gamma}$ =	7		
		79		79
Degrees of freedom				221

DBPP, Study 1
MLC/OISE

Initial list of potential measurement procedure

			Grammatical Competence	Discourse Competence	Sociolinguistic Competence
Context embedded/unanalyzed	Productive	Oral	Structural interview Group problem-solving Movie retelling		
		Graphic	Writing sample Diagrams with sentences in mixed order		
	Receptive	Aural	Performance tasks, based on aural stimuli		
		Graphic	Comic strip Reading passages } with multiple-choice questions		
Context reduced/analyzed	Productive	Oral	Oral dictation (imitation) Structural elicitation (manipulation) Short conversations with parts missing		
		Graphic	Writing sample Cloze test		
	Receptive	Aural	Multiple-choice listening comprehension test		
		Graphic	multiple-choice test cloze passage with matching		

APPENDIX B

PROFICIENCY TESTS

Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project

1982

Prepared by Project Staff

APPENDIX B:2,1

Nom: ______________________________

Ecole: ______________________________

Classe: ______________________________

TEST DE GRAMMAIRE

Voici un test de grammaire à choix multiples. Pour chaque phrase, il faut choisir la seule bonne réponse parmi les trois suggérées et encercler la lettre correspondant à la bonne réponse.

Exemple:

Les livres __________ Jean sont sur le bureau.

a) au

[✓ b)] de

c) par

1. Il y a beaucoup ____________________ bicyclettes dans la rue.

a) de

b) des

c) les

2. Est-ce que tu vas ____________________ spectacle ce soir?

a) à la

b) au

c) chez le

3. Pendant que Marie lit, Jacques et Paul ________________la télévision.

a) regardaient

b) ont regardé

c) regardent

4. Antoine ____________________ ses lunettes en faisant du ski.

a) a cassé

b) est cassé

c) s'est cassé

5. Marie s'est dirigée ____________________ carré St. Louis.

a) pour le

b) au

c) vers le

6. Ils sont au Canada ________________ déjà trois mois.

   a) durant

   b) pour

   c) depuis

7. Marie était bien ________________ aujourd'hui.

   a) habiller

   b) habillée

   c) habillé

8. Mme Beauséjour regardait par la fenêtre quand ils ________________ dans la chambre.

   a) entreront

   b) entrent

   c) entrèrent

9. Elle a beaucoup ________________ les blouses vertes.

   a) aimé

   b) aimée

   c) aimées

10. Jean et Marie partent ____________________ vacances la semaine prochaine.

a) aux

b) pour

c) en

11. Jean a mangé le gâteau que tu m' ____________________

a) apporterais

b) apportes

c) as apporté

12. Je m'attends ____________________ ce qu'elle arrive bientôt.

a) à

b) pour

c) que

13. Ils pensent ____________________ toi tous les jours.

a) de

b) à

c) en

14. Je leur ai ____________________ des verres en cadeau.

a) données

b) donnés

c) donné

15. Les enfants de l'école Ste-Marie ____________________ l'autobus tous les jours.

a) prend

b) prends

c) prennent

16. Ils t'aideront pourvu que tu ____________________ tous tes devoirs.

a) finiras

b) finirais

c) finisses

17. A ta place, je le ferais tout de suite au cas où quelqu'un ____________________ .

a) arriverait

b) arrivait

c) arrivera

18. Laquelle des deux rédactions est la mieux ____________________ ?

a) écrit

b) écrites

c) écrite

19. Je lui parlerai de façon qu'il ____________________ me comprendre.

a) pourrait

b) puisse

c) peut

20. Hier, pendant que je travaillais Eric ___________________ sa voiture.

a) a sorti

b) est sorti

c) sortirait

21. Je ___________________donnerai un livre pour sa fête.

a) le

b) la

c) lui

22. Ils ont fini ___________________ travaux à dix heures.

a) ses

b) leurs

c) leur

23. Voulez-vous ___________________ la table de vos livres?

a) débarrassez

b) débarrassé

c) débarrasser

24. Est-ce qu'ils racontent souvent ________________ histoires?

a) telles

b) de telles

c) de tels

25. ________________ de ces livres veux-tu garder?

a) Lesquels

b) Desquels

c) Lesquelles

26. Ils ont acheté ________________ meuble chez l'antiquaire.

a) un vieil

b) une vieille

c) un vieux

27. La semaine passée, j'ai parlé à Marie comme si elle ____________ une adulte.

a) était

b) serait

c) a été

28. C'est nous qui ________________ la vaisselle aujourd'hui.

a) faisons

b) font

c) fait

29. Les Etats-Unis se trouvent entre le Canada et ________________ Mexique.

a) la

b) le

c) --

30. Habituellement, après le cinéma nous ________________chez Marie.

a) allons

b) irions

c) irons

31. Nous sommes partis de Toronto pour aller ________________ Montréal.

a) en

b) au

c) à

32. Si j'avais le temps, je ________________ avec toi.

a) jouerais

b) jouerai

c) jouais

33. Lorsque je suis fatigué je rentre ________________ .

a) chez moi

b) à ma maison

c) à moi

34. Elles sont parties sans __________________ à personne.

a) avoir parler

b) avoir parlé

c) avoir parlées

35. Les livres sont sur __________________ bureau.

a) cet

b) cette

c) ce

36. Puisqu'ils étaient malades, ils __________________ l'école.

a) ont manqué

b) manquent

c) manqueraient

37. Elles partent __________________ France demain.

a) à

b) en

c) à la

38. J'ai étudié à Paris __________________ trois années.

a) pour

b) pendant

c) --

39. Depuis qu'il est parti nous ________________ seuls.

a) resterions

b) sommes restés

c) étions restés

40. Dépêchez-vous sinon vous ________________ en retard.

a) seriez

b) serez

c) êtes

41. Nous sommes assis ________________ vous .

a) devant

b) envers

c) arrière

42. J'évite ________________ prendre l'autobus pendant les heures de pointe.

a) de

b) pour

c) à

43. Si tu n'étudies pas tu ne ________________ pas tes examens.

a) réussirais

b) réussiras

c) réussis

44. La dame à qui j'ai __________________ n'est pas chez elle.

a) téléphoné

b) téléphonée

c) téléphoner

45. Il faut __________________ ce genre d'erreur.

a) évitez

b) éviter

c) évité

APPENDIX B:2,2

Nom: ______________________

Classe: ______________________

Ecole: ______________________

DISCOURS

A CHOIX MULTIPLES

Dans les pages suivantes, tu trouveras une série de petits textes. De chaque texte, une phrase a été retirée. Tu dois retrouver cette phrase parmi le choix de 3 (phrases) suggérées (a,b, ou c).

La bonne réponse est la phrase qui convient le mieux avec le reste du texte. Ecris la lettre correspondant à la bonne réponse à l'endroit que cette phrase devrait occuper dans le texte.

EXEMPLE:

Carole et Jean sont allés au magasin.

a) Une fois là-bas, il a rencontré un ami
b) Une fois là-bas, elle a rencontré un ami
c) Une fois là-bas, ils ont rencontré un ami

________C________. Et tous les trois ont décidé de passer l'après-midi ensemble.

1\.

a) Certains produits que l'on garde à la maison sont peu pratiques b) Certains produits que l'on garde à la maison ne sont pas dangereux c) Certains produits que l'on garde à la maison sont dangereux

____________________________. Les dissolvants à plancher sont inflammables et l'iode est un poison.

2. Jean et Marie sont d'excellents musiciens. Ils ont appris la musique quand ils étaient très jeunes.

a) Marie joue de la guitare et du piano b) Jean joue du piano et de la flûte c) Jean joue du piano et Marie de la guitare

__________________________. Ils jouent présentement dans un groupe et sont en tournée pour un mois au Etats-Unis.

3. Le blues est une musique créée par les noirs américains.

a) Ils jouent aussi du jazz b) Le jazz est surtout une musique de danse c) Il est une des sources du jazz

_________________________. Ses harmonies sont constantes et son rythme est à 4 temps.

4. C'est en Angleterre, en 1825, que l'on a inauguré la première ligne de chemin de fer pour le transport de passagers.

a) Ce train avait 21 wagons
b) Cette ligne était à une voie unique
c) Le train devait s'arrêter tous les 15-17 milles pour le plein d'eau

______________________________. Ce n'est que quelques années plus tard, que les lignes à double voie ont fait leur apparition.

5.
a) On peut acheter à peu près n'importe quoi par correspondance
b) Il est facile d'acheter par l'entremise de la poste
c) Acheter par correspondance est très populaire

____________________. Une des raisons pourrait être parce que certaines personnes croient que commander les choses par la poste est moins coûteux. Un autre avantage serait qu'il est plus agréable de regarder dans un catalogue, bien assis chez soi, que de parcourir les magasins.

6. Je n'ai pas fait de voyage en Europe, mais je suis allé aux îles Caraïbes. Le temps est magnifique là-bas. Les jours sont chauds et ensoleillés, et les nuits froides et claires.

a) La température en Europe est froide
b) Il pleut rarement et ne neige jamais
c) Il pleut toujours à torrent

____________________________.

7. Comment aimeriez-vous aller à une école comme celle de Oxford en Angleterre? Les élèves ont beaucoup de liberté. Les classes ne sont pas à heures fixes. Les élèves peuvent changer de groupe quand ils le désirent.

a) Chacun travaille à son rythme
b) Il faut avoir 15 ans pour aller à cette école
c) Ce genre d'école est rare au Canada

__________________________. Personne ne leur dit ce qu'ils doivent faire ou ne pas faire.

8. Le premier voyage en ballon dirigeable a eu lieu en France en 1783.

a) Il n'a duré que 8 minutes
b) Il avait été bien planifié
c) Il était rempli d'air chaud

________________. Cependant ça a été un grand événement pour les français.

9.
a) L'Halloween n'est pas une fête religieuse
b) L'Halloween est surtout une fête pour les enfants
c) L'Halloween a une longue histoire

______________________. Cela remonte jusqu'aux Romains. A cette époque de l'année, ils faisaient un gros festin en l'honneur de la déesse des arbres fruitiers.

10.
a) On reste chez soi le vendredi 13
b) Le vendredi 13 est une journée malchanceuse
c) L'Halloween est la fête de tous les saints

____________________. Ceci est une superstition très commune. Certaines personnes sont très superstitieuses. D'autres ne font que rire de ces croyances.

11. Louise attend Gloria au coin d'une rue. Elles devaient aller à un concert à 7h00.

a) Après le concert, elles aimeraient aller au restaurant.
b) Gloria pense que le concert est à 8h00
c) Il est 7h15 et Gloria n'est pas encore arrivée

________________________. Louise est très fâchée.

12. Le diamantaire taille le diamant pour qu'il reflète la lumière. A son état naturel, le diamant n'est pas attrayant.

a) Sa beauté ne sera mise en évidence qu'après un long et minutieux travail
b) Ses éclats et ses scintillements attirent l'oeil
c) Les bons diamantaires ne sont pas rares

______________________. C'est pour cette raison que l'on respecte un bon diamantaire.

13. A un concours, Pat a gagné un séjour d'une semaine à San Francisco. Ce prix incluait une nuit dans un grand hôtel et $500.00 en argent de poche.

a) Là-bas, elle a dépensé tout son argent à courir les théâtres et les grands restaurants
b) A son arrivée à San Francisco, elle était tellement fatiguée qu'elle a dormi toute la journée à l'hôtel
c) Là-bas, elle s'est promenée dans tous les parcs de la ville

____________________. A son retour, elle était fatiguée, sans un sou,mais contente.

14.
a) Mardi soir, Simon est rentré tard à la maison
b) Mardi soir, Michèle est rentrée tard à la maison
c) Mardi soir, il est rentré tard à la maison

______________________. Après avoir accroché son manteau, il est allé directement à la cuisine. Il avait faim car l'heure du souper était passée depuis longtemps.

15. La semaine passée, à un party chez des amis, j'ai porté mon bel habit neuf. Mais, tous mes amis étaient en jeans et en t-shirts.

a) Je me suis senti ridicule
b) Ils n'ont pas critiqué mon nouvel habit
c) Mon habit était en corduroy bleu foncé

_____________________. A l'avenir je porterai des jeans comme tout le monde.

16.

a) A toutes les années, les inventeurs viennent de partout en Amérique du Nord pour participer au "salon de l'invention" qui a lieu à New York
b) A toutes les années, des inventeurs venant de partout en Amérique du Nord se réunissent à New York
c) A toutes les années, au "salon de l'invention", on peut voir les inventions provenant de partout en Amérique du Nord

________________. A cette exposition, ils étalent leurs plus récentes découvertes dans l'espoir de les vendre et de faire fortune. Cependant, rares sont ceux qui empochent plus d'argent qu'ils n'en déboursent, pour assister au "salon de l'invention".

17. Papa et Fred étaient dans la cuisine en train de préparer le souper. "Qu'est-il arrivé au dernier morceau de gâteau" a demandé Papa, en regardant Fred.

a) "Je l'ai fait" a répondu Fred
b) "J'ai mangé ça" a répondu Fred
c) "Je l'ai mangé" a répondu Fred

________________________.

18. A peu près le tiers de la population mondiale est constituée de gauchers. On pourrait donc penser qu'être gaucher est une chose acceptée de tous.

a) Cependant, plusieurs parents ne forcent plus leurs enfants à utiliser la main droite
b) Cependant, plusieurs parents forcent encore leurs enfants à utiliser la main droite
c) Cependant, les enfants inconsciemment préfèrent utiliser leur main gauche

________________.

19. Epuisée et en sueur, Marie arrive péniblement en haut de l'escalier et dépose les sacs d'épicerie sur la dernière marche.

a) Elle ouvre la porte, se penche, et reprend les sacs d'épicerie
b) Elle ouvre la porte, se penche, et Marie reprend les sacs d'épicerie
c) Marie ouvre la porte, se penche, et elle reprend les sacs d'épicerie

____________________. Puis, dans un dernier effort, elle les transporte jusqu'au comptoir de la cuisine.

20. Puisqu'il faisait beau et chaud, Jean et Lucie ont décidé d'organiser une partie de baseball.

a) Ils se sont levés tôt ce matin
b) Ils ont réuni tout l'équipement nécessaire pour jouer
c) Le temps venu pour jouer, seulement cinq personnes étaient là

____________________. Puis, une fois prêts, ils ont appelé suffisamment d'amis pour former deux équipes.

21. Ma mère n'aime pas que je sorte après l'école sans la prévenir. Hier, je suis allé chez mon ami Paul.

a) Après quelques minutes, je l'ai appelé pour lui dire où j'étais
b) Il m'a dit que je pouvais appeler ma mère de chez lui
c) Je ne pensais pas rester longtemps chez lui

________________________. Quand je suis rentré à la maison pour souper, ma mère était fâchée contre moi.

22. Hier, je suis allé chez un de mes amis.

a) Dans la soirée, nous nous sommes chicanés
b) Dans la soirée, nous avons regardé la télé
c) Dans la soirée, je l'ai aidé à réparer son radio

________________. Quand je suis parti de chez lui, j'étais fâché. Je n'ai pas du tout aimé ma soirée.

23. "A qui appartient ce livre?" demande le professeur en colère, en montrant un livre de géographie. "Vous savez tous que vous devez avoir vos noms sur la couverture". Sachant que je n'avais pas écrit mon nom sur le mien, j'ai cherché mon livre dans mon bureau.

a) "Je crois que ce livre-ci est à moi", ai-je dit à voix basse tout en rougissant
b) "Je crois que ceci est à moi", ai-je dit à voix basse tout en rougissant
c) "Je crois que c'est le mien", ai-je dit à voix basse tout en rougissant

____________________________.

24. Nous avons parlé pendant une demie-heure, Pierre et moi, pour décider de ce que nous allions faire. Il voulait se promener en bicyclette et moi je préférais jouer au ballon. On s'est finalement mis d'accord.

a) Puisqu'on avait beaucoup de temps, nous le ferions
b) Puisqu'on avait beaucoup de temps, nous allions faire les deux
c) Puisqu'on avait beaucoup de temps, Pierre et moi allions le faire

__________________________.

25. Deux amis ont décidé de se construire une cabane. Ils se sont procurés tous les outils nécessaires et, pensant que ce serait facile, ils se sont donnés l'après-midi pour la faire. Mais à la fin de la journée, ils n'avaient même pas fini le plancher.

a) Après tout ce n'était pas si facile
b) Après tout ce n'est pas si facile
c) C'était facile

________________________ .

26. Julie mange ses légumes avec beaucoup de sel mais sans poivre.

a) Claude l'aime avec du poivre mais sans sel
b) Claude aime les siens avec beaucoup de sel mais sans poivre
c) Claude aime les siens avec du poivre mais sans sel

________________________ .

27. Marie était tellement fatiguée quand elle est rentrée chez elle, qu'elle voulait aller se coucher immédiatement, mais avant il fallait (au moins) qu'elle se déchausse. Elle a posé ses livres par terre et a enlevé ses bottes.

a) Puis elle est montée lentement se coucher
b) Puis elle a ouvert la porte et est entrée
c) Puis elle a ramassé ses livres et les a portés dans le salon

_____ ____________________ . Ensuite elle est allée à la cuisine se servir un verre de lait.

28. La semaine prochaine, la classe va patiner sur le canal Rideau à Ottawa mais Marie n'a pas de patins;

a) Suzanne non plus
b) Suzanne en a
c) Suzanne a les siens

______________________________ . Alors, elles doivent toutes les deux en louer.

29. Marc s'est levé de bonne heure ce matin-là. Sa journée allait être exceptionnelle. Il a fait son lit et s'est habillé rapidement.

a) Il est allé à la cuisine sans faire de bruit et a préparé son déjeuner
b) Il s'est levé d'un bond, pressé de partir
c) Il est sorti prendre l'air en sifflotant

______________________________ . Puis, il a préparé ses affaires. Il était enfin prêt à partir à la pêche.

APPENDIX B:2,3

Nom: ______________________________

Ecole: ______________________________

Classe: ______________________________

SOCIOLINGUISTIQUE

Dans ce test on te donne différentes situations sociales. Pour chaque situation il faut encercler la lettre correspondant à la phrase qui convient le mieux au contexte donné. Tu dois choisir une seule des trois phrases suggérées dans chaque contexte.

Voici un exemple:

A l'école
dite par une élève à un ami

(a) Le prof. a puni Jean aujourd'hui.

(b) Aujourd'hui, Jean a été puni par le professeur.

(c) Aujourd'hui, Jean a reçu une punition du professeur.

(a) serait la meilleure réponse
puisque
(b) est trop formel et trop poli pour un ami
et
(c) appartient plus à la langue écrite que parlée

1. Dans un lieu public

   sur une affiche

   (a) Nous vous demandons de ne pas fumer.

   (b) Nous vous prions de bien vouloir vous abstenir de fumer.

   (c) Défense de fumer.

2. Dans une réunion

   dite par un adulte demandant à d'autres personnes de fermer la porte

   (a) Pourriez-vous fermer la porte, s'il vous plaît?

   (b) Fermez la porte, s'il vous plaît!

   (c) Auriez-vous l'obligeance de bien vouloir fermer la porte, s'il vous plaît?

3. Dans un magazine

   titre d'un texte publicitaire

   (a) N'utilisez pas trop d'eau chaude car elle coûte chère.

   (b) L'eau chaude: la goutte qui fait déborder la facture.

   (c) L'eau chaude est tellement chère qu'il faut l'économiser.

4. A l'arrêt d'autobus

   dite par Sylvie à Marie

   (a) Hier, nous avons passé une excellente soirée au cinéma.

   (b) On a été voir un bon film hier soir.

   (c) Hier soir, nous sommes allées voir un excellent film.

5. Dans une note (distribuée aux professeurs et aux élèves) écrite par le bibliothécaire

   (a) A l'avenir, veuillez inscrire le numéro correspondant au volume sur votre fiche d'emprunt.

   (b) A partir d'aujourd'hui, il faut écrire le numéro du livre sur votre fiche d'emprunt.

   (c) Mettez le numéro du livre que vous prenez sur votre fiche d'emprunt.

6. Au restaurant (sur l'autoroute) dite par le serveur à deux jeunes personnes

   (a) Notre tarte aux pommes est excellente, pourrais-je vous la suggérer comme dessert?

   (b) Prenez donc de la tarte aux pommes pour dessert.

   (c) Je peux vous conseiller la tarte aux pommes comme dessert.

7. Dans une lettre écrite par Julie à sa cousine

   (a) J'ai beaucoup apprécié le cadeau que vous m'avez offert.

   (b) J'ai beaucoup aimé le cadeau que tu m'as donné.

   (c) C'est avec beaucoup de plaisir que j'ai reçu le cadeau que tu m'as donné.

8. A la pharmacie dite par la pharmacienne à un client

   (a) Vous devez prendre ces médicaments après chaque repas.

   (b) Prends ces médicaments après chaque repas.

   (c) Vous êtes tenu de prendre ces médicaments après chaque repas.

9. Au restaurant

dite par un client à une serveuse

(a) Sont où les toilettes?

(b) Pardon, où sont les toilettes?

(c) C'est où les toilettes?

10. Dans une lettre

écrite par la bibliothécaire de l'école à un gérant de librairie

(a) Merci pour le livre que vous m'avez envoyé.

(b) Je vous remercie de m'avoir fait parvenir le livre que je vous avais demandé.

(c) Je vous remercie de m'avoir envoyé le livre que j'ai demandé.

11. Laquelle de ces trois phrases est un proverbe?

(a) Pour devenir riche, il faut se lever tôt.

(b) Heure du matin, heure du gain.

(c) Levez-vous de bonne heure et vous deviendrez riche.

12. Après une partie de hockey

dite par un spectateur à son ami

(a) Les joueurs avaient l'air fatigué après la partie.

(b) Lorsque la partie fut terminée, les joueurs paraissaient fatigués

(c) Après la partie, les joueurs semblaient épuisés.

13. Dans un catalogue

description d'un appareil

(a) On entretient facilement cet appareil, de plus il est très solide.

(b) Cet appareil est d'une très grande solidité et facile d'entretien.

(c) Cet appareil est très solide et vous pouvez le nettoyer facilement.

14. Laquelle de ces trois phrases est un proverbe?

(a) Souris qui n'a qu'un trou est bientôt prise.

(b) Une souris rusée doit avoir plus d'un trou.

(c) La souris qui n'a qu'un trou se fera prendre rapidement.

15. A l'auditorium de l'Université du Québec

un professeur invité pour donner une conférence

(a) Vous savez, les loups sont des animaux qui vivent loin des grandes villes.

(b) Le loup est un animal qui vit habituellement dans des régions éloignées des centres urbains.

(c) D'habitude, les loups vivent en dehors des villes.

16. A la bibliothèque publique

dite par une jeune élève à un groupe d'étrangers assis à la table à côté

(a) Voulez-vous rester tranquilles?

(b) Est-ce que vous pourriez parler moins fort?

(c) Voulez-vous parler moins fort?

17. Dans un magazine

écrite dans une rubrique pour automobilistes

(a) Quand tu sors de ta voiture fais attention de ne pas laisser les clés à l'intérieur.

(b) Lorsque vous laissez votre voiture, assurez-vous de bien avoir les clés en votre possession.

(c) Faites attention de ne pas laisser vos clés à l'intérieur quand vous sortez de votre voiture.

18. Dans l'autobus

dite par un adulte à son ami

(a) Dans la rue, trois enfants s'amusaient.

(b) Il y a trois enfants qui jouaient sur la rue.

(c) Trois enfants ont été aperçus jouant dans la rue.

19. Dans un journal

écrite dans un article par un journaliste

(a) Des statistiques récentes démontrent une augmentation du chômage dans le secteur Sainte-Marie.

(b) Dernièrement dans le secteur Sainte-Marie le chômage a beaucoup augmenté.

(c) Le chômage a beaucoup augmenté ces derniers temps dans Sainte-Marie.

20. A la maison

dite par un parent à une gardienne, parlant de son enfant

(a) Il éprouve beaucoup de plaisir lorsque l'on lui raconte des histoires.

(b) Tu peux lui raconter des histoires, il aime ça avant de se coucher.

(c) Il aime beaucoup qu'on lui raconte des histoires avant de s'endormir.

21. A l'école, dans la cour de récréation

dite par une élève à son ami

(a) Pourrais-je te voir un instant?

(b) Est-ce que je pourrais te parler quelques minutes?

(c) Je peux te parler une minute?

22. Dans le dictionnaire

comme définition du mot grand-père

(a) C'est le père du père ou de la mère.

(b) Le père d'un parent de quelqu'un.

(c) Père du père ou de la mère de quelqu'un.

23. A la maison

une jeune personne présentant Paul à sa cousine

(a) Je te présente Paul, un de mes amis.

(b) Je voudrais que tu fasses la connaissance de mon ami Paul.

(c) J'aimerais vous présenter mon ami Paul.

24. Dans une note

écrite par un mari à sa femme

(a) Veuillez prendre note du rendez-vous avec M. Roy le mardi 27 juin.

(b) Ceci est pour confirmer ton rendez-vous avec M. Roy mardi 27 juin au matin.

(c) N'oublie pas que tu es supposé rencontrer M. Roy mardi matin.

25. Devant l'hôtel de ville

écrit sur un panneau public

(a) Prière de ne pas passer sur le gazon.

(b) Ne passer pas sur le gazon.

(c) Vous ne devez pas passer sur le gazon.

26. A la radio

dite par un membre de l'Association Canadienne des Cyclistes

(a) Afin d'éviter tout risque inutile, assurez-vous toujours de bien cadenasser votre bicyclette.

(b) C'est niaiseux de laisser sa bicyclette n'importe où sans la barrer.

(c) C'est courir un risque inutile que de laisser sa bicyclette dans la rue, sans aucune protection.

27. A la maison

dite par Paul à Jean

(a) Roger m'a dit qu'il peut pas venir demain.

(b) Roger ne pourra pas venir demain.

(c) Roger m'a informé qu'il ne pourrait être présent demain.

28. Dans une encyclopédie (pour adulte)

écrite dans la rubrique des Arts

(a) Les masques constituent la forme d'art la plus répandue à travers le monde primitif.

(b) Les masques étaient la forme d'art la plus populaire dans le monde primitif.

(c) Dans le monde primitif on retrouve surtout des masques comme forme d'art.

APPENDIX B:3,1

Nom: ______________________________

Ecole: ______________________________

Classe: ______________________________

REDACTION FRANÇAISE

On te demande d'écrire 2 petites rédactions de quelques lignes chacune. Tu as 15 minutes pour faire chaque rédaction.

Imagine-toi que ta famille loue une maison à la campagne pendant le mois d'août. Dans le garage, qui est barré, tu vois une belle bicyclette dix-vitesses.

Ecris une lettre au propriétaire de la maison pour le convaincre de te donner la permission d'utiliser la bicyclette.

Sers-toi de l'espace ci-dessous:

Cher monsieur,

Au secours!

Ecris une petite histoire sur le sauvetage d'un petit chat se trouvant dans le haut d'un arbre.

Commence avec le début suivant:

C'était un beau dimanche d'été et sur le balcon de la maison des Dupont un petit chat dormait tranquillement. Tout d'un coup trois chiens ______

APPENDIX B:3,2

Nom: ______________________________

Ecole: ______________________________

Classe: ______________________________

REDACTION FRANÇAISE

On te demande d'écrire 2 petites rédactions de quelques lignes chacune. Tu as 15 minutes pour faire chaque rédaction.

Imagine-toi que ta famille déménage et que le nouveau propriétaire ne veut pas que tu gardes ton petit chien dans votre nouvel appartement.

Ecris une lettre au propriétaire pour le convaincre de te donner la permission de garder ton petit chien.

Sers-toi de l'espace ci-dessous:

Cher monsieur, ____

Aux voleurs!

Ecris une petite histoire sur un important vol de banque. Commence avec le début suivant:

Ce jour-là, comme d'habitude, la banque était pleine de monde. Tout d'un coup, trois bandits ____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

Nom: ______________________

Ecole: ______________________

Classe: ______________________

ECRIRE EN FRANÇAIS

LETTRE FRANÇAISE

On te demande d'écrire 1 lettre courte de quelques lignes.
Tu as 15 minutes pour le faire.

Lettre

Imagine que tu travailles à un projet sur la pollution. Dans deux semaines, ça sera à toi de présenter ton projet à la classe. Tu as été voir à la bibliothèque mais tu n'as pas trouvé le matériel nécessaire. Ecris une lettre au Service de l'environnement pour leur demander de t'envoyer en urgence des informations et des photos pour faire ta présentation.

NOTES FRANÇAISES

On te demande d'écrire 2 petites notes de quelques lignes chacune. Tu as 7½ minutes pour faire chaque note.

Note

Tu as oublié que tes parents ont de la visite ce soir. Ta chambre est très en désordre et tes affaires traînent partout dans le salon. Ta mère n'est pas contente de toi. Quand tu rentres de l'école, elle n'est pas là, mais elle t'a laissé une note sur la table de cuisine. Ce n'est pas difficile d'imaginer ce qu'elle te demande de faire. Ecris la note comme tu penses que ta mère l'aurait écrite.

Note

Deux fois pendant la semaine tu as oublié de faire tes devoirs et ton professeur n'est pas content de toi. Il t'a dit de venir tôt à l'école pour rattraper ton travail. Quand tu arrives en classe, ton professeur n'est pas là, mais il y a une note pour toi sur le tableau. Il te demande de lire un passage dans ton livre de lecture, puis de faire un exercice dans ton cahier. Ecris la note comme tu penses que le professeur l'aurait écrite (tu peux imaginer l'exercice que tu veux).

Classroom Treatment Studies:
Preliminary Observation Scheme

For the description of the events and interactions occurring in the second language classroom it was decided to refer to activities as the basic unit of analysis (see page 39). This decision was based on the practical consideration that the concept 'activity' is meaningful to teachers since classroom teaching is usually planned and organized around distinct teaching/learning units. Therefore, if at any stage it was considered desirable to change teacher behaviour, reference to activity might be most effective.

At present, we propose a two-way analysis of classroom activities:

(a) a description of the activities with reference to -

Activity Type
Participant Organization
Content
Student Skills
Use of Materials

(b) an analysis of these activities in terms of seven communicative features.

Part A (see this appendix, page 70)

Description of Activities

I Activity Type

Column 1 (a) Non pedagogical activities:

- activities/events with no teaching/learning purpose
  e.g. management; socializing at beginning or end of class; rearranging furniture, etc.

Column 2 (b) Pedagogical activities:

- activities/events with explicit or implicit teaching/learning purpose

e.g.

	Coding Symbol
drill (incl. imitation/repetition of models)	dr
translation	tr
description	des
re-telling	re
demonstration	dem
role-playing (role-making)	role
games	g
reports (e.g., based on projects)	rep
conversation	con
discussion	dis
question/answer	qu/a
exercises	ex
dictation	dic
listening comprehension	lc
reading aloud	r
singing	s
reciting (poems, dialogues, etc.)	rec
presentation of new material	pre
socialising (off-task conversation)	soc
problem-solving tasks	pro

Enter coding symbols into space provided on coding sheet.

Those activities which have not been listed have to be described briefly in class.

Column 3 II Participant Organization (cf. Mitchell et al., 1981)

(a) whole class: one central activity is going on; whole class functions as a group; teacher interacts with whole class (as in presenting information to the whole class) and/or interacts with individual students.

Column 4 (b) student to student/or whole class: students talk to each other, as in informal, unstructured socializing; one central activity may be going on, focused on pupil demonstration (e.g., one student may play teacher or report on a project); a group of students may act out a skit and rest of class is the audience

Column 5 (c) choral: choral work by students, e.g., repeating teacher model.

Columns 6/7 (d) group work
1. same (Col.6) - groups work on same task
2. different (Col.7) - groups work on different tasks.

Note:
1. If possible, indicate number of groups and number of students per group, e.g. 5/3 = 5 groups with 3 students per group
2. If group work is observed, the following information about the degree of teacher control will be gathered:

Teacher control: Teacher specifies
(a) activities, tasks, etc.
(b) procedures for carrying out tasks
(c) size of group
(d) constitution of group
(e) variation of tasks, group size and constitution over time
(f) Teacher monitors group work - assists, controls, checks, etc.

Student control: Students specify a - d of above. Teacher acts only as resource person when asked for assistance.

Column 8 (e) individual seat work: students work on their own on same or different tasks.

Column 9 (f) group/individual: some students are involved in group work, others work on their own.

Column 10 III Content

The content categories are designed to capture information about the topics of the spoken and written discourse occurring within each activity. Several content areas have been specified to allow for potential differences between programs. It may also be the case that certain activity types typically co-occur with certain content areas. Some other typical patterns of co-occurrence may be noted in the course of the observation.

Content Categories

Column 10 Syllabus: Content as prescribed by the syllabus.

Column 11 Non-Syllabus: Content has not been prescribed by syllabus.

Column 12 Language specified: explicit focus on language code

- grammar (gr)
- vocabulary (voc)
- functions (f)
- discourse rules (dis) (coherence/cohesion)

Note: enter symbols into column "L-spec."

Language non-specified:

Column 13 1. Metalanguage - reference to the general nature of language, general linguistic notions (noun, verb, etc.); cross-lingual references.

Column 14 2. Situations - third party contextualizations; the discourse concerns situations narrations, stories, dialogues, in textbook or from other sources.

Column 15 3. Personal Lives - reference to interests, habits, experiences, bio-data, etc. of teacher and students.

Column 16 4. Curriculum - learning objectives, teaching rationales, selection of activities, content, etc.

Column 17 5. Study Skills/Learning Techniques - e.g. how to use a dictionary, how to use the library.

Column 18 6. Non-academic topics - familiar topics of narrow range, e.g., weather, date, daily routines.

Column 19 7. Academic subject matter - e.g. subjects other than language, e.g., geography, history, culture and civilization; controversial theoretical issues, etc.

Column 20 8. Other

Col.21-25 IV Student Skills

The categories under 'Student Skills' characterize an activity in terms of the skill or combination of skills that are fostered by the activity. Five categories have been specified:

listening
speaking
reading
writing
other, e.g., drawing

Col.26-38 V Materials

Since materials play an important role in teaching, the description of classroom activities is to be complemented by indicating what type of materials are used and how they are being used.

Col.26-30 1. Type of materials:

text
audio (e.g. tape-recorder)
visual (e.g. pictures)
other
authentic - i.e. not specifically designed for L2 learning purposes

Col.31-33 2. Use of materials

(a) Rigid use - discourse adheres very closely to the materials, e.g., comprehension questions on a text

(b) Flexible use - discourse occasionally goes beyond the restrictions imposed by the materials

(c) Free use - materials serve as 'spring-board' or stimulus for discourse or non-language activities

Part B (see this appendix, page 71)

Communicative Features

Each activity will be analyzed in terms of seven communicative features. It is understood that not all features may apply to all activities. The communicative features selected focus specifically on characteristics of spoken classroom discourse, that is on the verbal interaction between participants. As is evident from the coding sheet, the features will be coded separately for teacher and student verbal interaction. In view of the less prominent role of the teacher and more active role of the student in communicatively oriented activities more features can be recorded for student output than for teacher output. The following seven communicative features have been selected:

1. Use of Target Language (Teacher and Student)
2. Discourse Initiation (Student only)
3. Information Gap (Teacher and Student)
4. Sustained Speech (Teacher and Student)
5. Relative Restriction of Linguistic Form (Student only)
6. Reaction to Message/Code (Teacher and Student)
7. Extended Interaction Exchange (Teacher and Student)

A rationale and explanation of all seven features is provided below.

I Use of Target Language (Teacher and Student)

This communicative feature is designed to measure the extent to which the target language is the predominant language of communication.

This is based on the obvious assumption that in order for communication to take place in a second language, the second language must be used. This will be measured by the categories:

(1) Use of L_1

(2) Use of L_2

II Discourse Initiation

This communicative feature is designed to measure the extent to which speaker (students) produce "spontaneous" speech. That is, do students initiate the interaction or do they speak only when their turns are allocated?

This feature is based on the assumption that in "real" communication speakers engage in speech which is both self-initiated and elicited. Again, the classroom seems to be an environment which provides for many more elicited than self-initiated utterances.

The categories designed to measure this communicative feature are:

Self-initiated language

(a) questions

(b) statements

III Information Gap

This communicative feature deals with the extent to which the information requested and/or exchanged between interlocutors is known or not known in advance. That is, are teachers and students asking pseudo-questions or genuine questions? Are they giving relatively predictable or unpredictable responses?

This feature is based on the assumption that "real" communication involves the expression, negotiation and interpretation of meaning where information is being requested and conveyed from one speaker/writer to another. Naturally, "real" communication can also include reference to information that both participants already possess. However, this kind of exchange seems to be more typical of classroom instruction.

The categories designed to measure the extent to which the information is known/not known in advance by the participants are the following:

1. Questions

(a) pseudo questions - where the questioner knows the answer to his/her question in advance;
- where the question asked may also be about information that is shared by both addresser and addressee.

(b) genuine questions - where information is requested to which the answer is not known in advance.

2. Responses (elicited language)

(a) highly predictable - where the information being given would be the same no matter who is speaking

(b) relatively unpredictable - where the information being given is not easily predictable; that is, different respondents may give very different answers.

IV Sustained Speech (Teacher and Student)

This communicative feature is intended to measure the extent to which speakers extend their utterances. That is, do speaker's utterances typically consist of a minimal response (one word, one clause, one sentence) or do they engage in extended speech?

This feature is based on the assumption that in "real" communication speakers do not typically provide minimal responses, but have the opportunity to speak at some length; whereas in the classroom, students often provide only minimal language.

The categories designed to measure this feature are:

(1) minimal speech - within one move, the speaker provides minimal language/information which would normally coincide with one word, one clause or one sentence utterances.

(2) sustained speech - the speaker provides elaborated (longer) utterances which would normally coincide with more than one sentence.

V Relative Restriction of Linguistic Form (Student Only)

This communicative feature deals with the extent to which restrictions are placed on the use of particular linguistic forms. Are the students expected to produce specific grammatical structures as in a repetition or substitution drill or are they give the freedom to choose from the variety of linguistic forms in their L2 repertoire?

This communicative feature is based on the assumption that in "real" communication, speakers are not expected to use an artificially restricted code, but rather, use language freely in creative ways.

There are three dimensions to this communicative feature:

(1) Restricted: Where the production and/or manipulation of one specific form is expected or imposed by the teacher, text, materials, etc. Examples of this restricted use of language are:

- a. repetition drills
- b. substitution drills
- c. transformation drills
- d. reading aloud, etc.

(2) Limited Restrictions: Where there is a choice of more than one linguistic form, but this range is very narrow because of teacher, task or text constraints. Where content/context restrictions can impose linguistic restrictions. Examples of this would be:

a. Picture description - limited vocabulary imposed by picture and nature of task

b. Story retelling - some cue words are given to maintain the context and content in story.

(3) Unrestricted: Where there is no expectation or imposition of a particular linguistic form or forms on the part of teacher, texts or materials. Examples of this unrestricted use of language would be:

a retelling a story (no cue words)

b. describing an event, experience

c. free conversation

VI Reaction to Message/Code (Teacher and Student)

This communicative feature is designed to measure the extent to which interlocutors are responding to either the language code being used or the message being conveyed.

In "real" communication, interlocutors may respond to the code, but most often respond to meaning. The reverse often seems to be the case in the language classroom.

This communicative feature will be measured using the following observable categories:

(1) Response to code: (a) Explicit correction

(b) Comment on Code

(2) Response to message

VII Extended Interaction Exchanges (Teacher and Student)

This communicative feature is designed to measure whether the exchanges between interlocutors are restricted to a minimal exchange pattern of two or three moves (e.g. question/response/acknowledgement) or whether there is a 'flow' of interaction in terms of expansions and development of previous utterances, follow-up questions and other reactions which invite further related discourse.

This feature is based on the assumption that speakers engaged in "real" communication add to, expand, and follow-up on their interlocutor's utterances. Minimal acknowledgement of a speaker's utterance also occurs in "real" communication. "However, many L2 classroom exchanges seem to be restricted to these very minimal interaction patterns.

Extended interaction exchanges are not necessarily restricted to exchanges between the original interlocutors.

They will be measured as follows:

(1) No extension: no feedback may be provided; the reaction consists of a minimal acknowledgement (e.g., O.K., that's fine) and/or a verbatim repetition or a rephrasing of the preceding utterance.

(2) minimal extensions: reactions to preceding utterances such as comments, elaborations, explanations, etc. which do not invite further discourse.

(3) leading extensions: reactions to preceding utterances, such as follow-up questions which invite or lead to further related discourse.

SCHOOL
TEACHER
SUBJECT

GRADE(S)
LESSON

DATE
OBSERVER
OBSERVATION No.

Part A
Page C70

Column	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
TIME		PEDAGOGICAL ACTIVITIES	PARTIC. ORGANIZATION							CONTENT											STUDENT SKILLS					MATERIALS							
						Group							L-non-specified													Type					Use		
	Non-Pedagogical Activities		Whole	S - s/c	Choral	Same	Different	Individual	Gr/Ind.	Syllabus	Non-Syllabus	L-Spec.	Meta.	Situations	Personal	Curriculum	Study Skills	Non-academic	Acad. S.M.	Other	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Text	Audio	Visual	Other	Authentic	Rigid	Flexible	Free

11

Commun. Features		TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION														STUDENT VERBAL INTERACTION																		
		TARGET LANG.		INFO GAP				SUST. SPEECH		REACTION CODE/MESS.			EXTENDED EXCHANGES			TARGET LANG.		DISC. INIT.		INFO GAP				SUST. SPEECH		FORM RESTR.			REACTION CODE/MESS.			EXTENDED EXCHANGES		
TIME	No Talk	T talks L1	T talks L2	Ps. Quest.	Gen. Quest.	Predic. Res.	Unpred. Res.	Minimal Speech	Sustained Speech	Expl.Code Corr.	Code response	Mess. reaction	No extension	Minimal ext.	Leading ext.	S talks L1	S talks L2	Question	Statement	Ps. Quest.	Gen. Quest.	Predic. Res.	Unpred. Res.	Minimal Speech	Sustained Speech	Restricted	Limited Res.	Unrestricted	Expl.Code Corr.	Code Response	Mess. Reaction	No extension	Minimal ext.	Leading ext.

APPENDIX D

ENGLISH VERSION OF WRITTEN QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGNED FOR GRADE 12 STUDENTS OF PORTUGUESE BACKGROUND

1. Where were you born?

   a) country ____________________

   b) nearest city or town ____________________

   c) if in Azores indicate name of island ____________

2. How old were you when you came to Toronto? ____________

3. Did you go to school in other countries besides Canada or Portugal?

   YES ☐ NO ☐

   If "yes" name the countries.

   ____

   ____

   ____

4. How many years of school did you complete before coming to Toronto? ________

5. Before coming to Toronto what language(s) was/were used by the teacher(s) in class to teach the various subjects?

   ____

   ____

   ____

6. Where was your father born?

   a) country ____________________

   b) nearest city or town ____________________

   c) if in Azores indicate name of island ____________

7. For how many years has your father been living in Toronto? ____________

8. Where was your mother born?
   a) country ______________________________
   b) nearest city or town ______________________
   c) if in Azores indicate name of island ____________

9. For how many years has your mother been living in Toronto? ________

10. Besides English, what other languages are you able to understand?

____

____

____

11. Which (if any) of the above are ever used at home?

____

____

____

12. What language (including English) is used most often at home?

____

13. When speaking to you what language is used most by:
   1) your mother ____________________
   2) your father ____________________
   3) your sister(s) ____________________
   4) your brother(s) ____________________
   5) your grandmother ____________________
   6) your grandfather ____________________
   7) your Portuguese friends ______________

14. What language do you use most when speaking to:
   1) your mother ______________________
   2) your father ______________________
   3) your sister(s) ______________________
   4) your brother(s) ______________________
   5) your grandmother ______________________
   6) your grandfather ______________________
   7) your Portuguese friends ______________________

15. What language do you parents use most to speak with each other?

____

16. When did you start learning to speak Portuguese? (check one only)
   1) in infancy (0 to 3 years) ☐
   2) pre-school years (3 to 6 years) ☐
   3) primary school (grades 1 to 6) ☐
   4) high school (grades 7 to 13) ☐

17. Where did you start learning to speak Portuguese? (check one only)
   1) at home ☐
   2) in a Heritage Language Programme offered in primary school ☐
   3) in any of the Portuguese Clubs or Associations ☐
   4) somewhere else ☐ , please say where ______________________

18. a) Where did you start learning to read and write Portuguese? (check one only)
   1) at home ☐
   2) in a Heritage Language Programme offered in primary school ☐
   3) in any of the Portuguese Clubs or Associations ☐
   4) somewhere else ☐ , please say where ______________________

18. b) About how old were you when you started learning to read and write Portuguese? ________

19. How many years of school do you have in Portuguese? ____________

20. a) Where did you start learning to speak English? (check one only)

1) at home ☐
2) in primary school ☐
3) in high school ☐
4) somewhere else ☐; please say where ________________

b) About how old were you? ________

21. a) Where did you start learning to read and write English? (check one only)

1) at home ☐
2) in primary school ☐
3) in high school ☐
4) somewhere else ☐ ; please say where ________________

b) About how old were you? ________

22. How many years have you attented an English school?

____

23. a) Where did you start learning to speak French? (check one only)

1) at home ☐
2) in primary school ☐
3) in high school ☐
4) somewhere else ☐ ; please say where ________________

b) About how old were you? ____________

24. a) Where did you start learning to read and write French?

1) at home ☐

2) in primary school ☐

3) in high school ☐

4) somewhere else ☐ ; please say where ______________

b) About how old were you? __________

25. How many years did you take French in school? __________

26. Rate your language ability in Portuguese, French and English by crossing the following lines with a check mark.

Portuguese

Understand

Very good ____ Poor

Speak

Very good ____ Poor

Read

Very good ____ Poor

Write

Very good ____ Poor

English

Understand

Very good ____ Poor

Speak

Very good ____ Poor

Read

Very good ____ Poor

Write

Very good ____ Poor

French

Very good ______________________________ Poor

Very good ______________________________ Poor

Very good ______________________________ Poor

Very good ______________________________ Poor

27. Did people in your household ever tell you when you were a child:

	Very often	Sometimes	Never
1) Stories in Portuguese			
2) Stories in English			

28. Did people in your household ever read to you when you were a child:

	Very often	Sometimes	Never
1) Stories in Portuguese			
2) Stories in English			

29. Do you listen to:

	Very often	Sometimes	Never
1) Portuguese records or tapes			
2) English records or tapes			

30. How often do you read:

	Portuguese			English		
	Very Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Often	Sometimes	Never
1) information						
2) novels						
3) textbooks						
4) other books						
5) newspapers or magazines						
6) letters you or your family receive						

31. Do you ever read anything else in any other language?

YES ☐ NO ☐

If yes, please indicate which language ______________________________

and what ______________________________

32.a) How often do you write:

	Portuguese			English		
	Very Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Often	Sometimes	Never
1) letters						
2) messages						
3) essays or projects						
4) articles for school newspapers or yearbooks						
5) any other types of writing Please specify ______________________________ ______________________________						

b) Do you ever write anything else in any other language? YES ☐ NO ☐

If yes, please indicate which language ________________________

and what ________________________

33. Do you watch:

a)

	Very often	Sometimes	Never
1) television programmes in Portuguese			
2) television programmes in English			

b)

	Very often	Sometimes	Never
4) Portuguese movies			
5) English movies			

34. Do you listen to:

	Very often	Sometimes	Never
1) Radio programmes in Portuguese			
2) Radio programmes in English			

35. Do you see

	Very often	Sometimes	Never
1) theatre plays in Portuguese			
2) other shows in Portuguese			
3) theatre plays in English			
4) other shows in English			

36. Would you say that the majority of people living in your neighbourhood are of Portuguese origin?

YES ☐ NO ☐

37. Do you take part in any activities of the Portuguese community?

YES ☐ NO ☐

If "yes", please specify which ______________________

____

____

____

38. a) Do you have a part time job? YES ☐ NO ☐

b) If "yes", do you use Portuguese in your job?

YES ☐ NO ☐

39. Do you use Portuguese when shopping in Portuguese stores?

Very often ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

40. Do you use Portuguese when talking to your neighbours?

Very often ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

41. How often do you do translations (English to Portuguese or Portuguese to English) for your parents?

Very often ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never ☐

42. How many times have you been to Portugal in the last four years?

____

43. Are you planning to take any additional training after high school?

YES ☐ NO ☐

44. Are you planning to attend any university or college courses after high school?

YES ☐ NO ☐

If "no, skip the other questions.

45. If you are planning to attend courses at a university or college, which areas interest you the most?

1) sciences ☐
2) general arts ☐
3) languages ☐
4) literature ☐

46. Are you planning to study any of the following at a university or college level?

1) Portuguese language ☐
2) Portuguese literature ☐
3) English language ☐
4) English literature ☐
5) French language ☐
6) French literature ☐
7) none of these ☐

47. If you have thought of taking other languages at a university or college level, please specify which ones:

____

____

____

____

48. If you had the possibility of educating your children in Portuguese would you do so?

YES ☐ NO ☐

APPENDIX E

TESOL 1982 Convention: communicative language teaching and classroom oriented research May 1-6, Honolulu, Hawaii

J.P.B. Allen
The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

The purpose of my visit to the TESOL 1982 Convention was to familiarise myself with recent developments in communicative language teaching and classroom-oriented research. There were the usual problems with overlapping and over-subscribed sessions, but I did manage to attend the whole of the Third Annual Colloquium on TESOL and Sociolinguistics, the Fifth Annual Colloquium on Classroom Centred Research, and the Colloquium on Task-Based Learning in ESL. I also attended a number of individual sessions, the most relevant of which was the Douglas and Terdal presentation on objective observation in the ESL classroom.

Colloquium on TESOL and Sociolinguistics

The session began with two theoretical papers: Leslie Beebe and Jane Zuengler on style shifting in interlanguage, and C.N. Candlin on the role and classification of activities in ESL. Beebe and Zwengler, discussing style and register in terms of personality accommodation theory, expressed reservations about the Labovian paradigm of style shifting in view of their claims that attention to speech can sometimes be negatively correlated with standardness or correctness, style can be manifested in linguistic shifts that do not fall along the standardness dimension, and attention to speech is inadequate as an explanation for style shifting in most situations. Candlin suggested that we need to establish sets of 'emic' or abstract activity types, each of which will subsume a range of 'etically' realised activities sharing certain key features of structure, allowable contribution and probably interpretation. Failure to identify classes of activities is a prime source of participant misunderstanding which in turn leads to incorrect inferencing of pragmatic value. Furthermore, over-emphasis on surface distinctiveness in teaching materials is likely to be misleading.

The theme of activity types was taken up by Elit Olshtain and Andrew Cohen ('Apology: a speech act set') who collected data in role-playing situations, on the basis of which they established a set of 'semantic formulas'. Each formula could constitute the act of apologising in English or Hebrew.

This framework may provide a means of establishing cross-cultural comparisons, and points the way to additional research into speech acts of various kinds. Two further data-based studies were those presented by Robin Scarcella and Joyce Neu. Scarcella videotaped a number of 'getting to know a stranger' conversations which included speakers of different nationalities. The questions addressed included: How is the relevance of topic established when there has been no previous interaction? How is a relationship negotiated? What do we do when someone starts talking off topic? A number of cross-cultural differences emerged, and it was apparent that when non-native speakers did not know the rules of appropriateness in English, communication breakdowns tended to occur. Joyce Neu ('Some linguistic correlates of negotiations') described an experiment in which MBA students at the University of Southern California participated in a game in which the buyer had to negotiate the lowest profit and the seller had to negotiate the highest profit. Results showed that success of outcome correlated with more words per utterance, more interruptions, and more questions. The discussion centred on the question of whether simulated data is a valid method of analysis, and on the problems of collecting authentic data.

Colloquium on classroom centred research

Three presentations were concerned with various aspects of student-teacher interaction, ranging from university classrooms through high school to kindergarten. Kathleen Bailey set out to investigate the communicative competence of native and non-native speaker teaching assistants in mathematics and physics courses at the undergraduate level. Teaching assistants were observed in the classroom, and were subsequently evaluated by students for effectiveness, helpfulness, and accessibility. Non-native speakers received low ratings, and the reason seemed to relate to their management of power-solidarity relationships. The native speakers regarded their students as 'close subordinates', while the non-native speakers regarded them as 'distant subordinates'. The students regarded the non-native assistants as equals, or even subordinates, rather than superiors. Linda Schinke-Llano observed the way high school teachers structured a task (ordering items from a Sears catalogue), and noted their patterns of interaction with (a) native, and (b) non-native students. The conclusion was that teachers were more helpful with non-native students, but that they were possibly over-simplifying the task, and underestimating the students' cognitive and linguistic abilities. The kindergarten study was conducted by Ruth Cathcart, who analysed the language used by eleven Spanish-speaking ESL children. It was found that both production and comprehension varied depending on context, conversational control by child or adult, and the nature of the objects and activities involved. The conclusion was that in research on language use we should pay attention to the interactional demands of situations, and the ways in which this may affect comprehension and production in the target language.

Two further presentations addressed the question 'Does L2 instruction help to promote second language acquisition?' Patsy M. Lightbown presented a morpheme acquisition study which attempted to determine the relationship between language as input in formal audiolingual classes, and the acquisition of grammatical morphemes as revealed in a picture-description task. The subjects were 260 French-speaking students, aged 11-16 years, learning English in Quebec. The results suggested that there was a connection between morpheme acquisition and frequency of use in the classroom. Thus what goes on in the classroom is significant, although students may process the input data in ways which differ from the order expected by the teacher. Mike Long introduced a survey of 13 research studies on the effectiveness of L2 instruction by suggesting the need to distinguish between the absolute effect of instruction on the one hand and, on the other, its relative utility. Secondly, studies need to be subclassified according to whether or not the comparisons they make involve controlling for the total amount of instruction, exposure, or instruction plus exposure, i.e., for the total opportunity to acquire the second language. Observing these distinctions, a review of research findings concluded that there is considerable evidence that instruction is beneficial (a) for children as well as for adults, (b) for beginning, intermediate and advanced students, (c) on integrative as well as discrete-point tests, and (d) in acquisition-rich as well as acquisition-poor environments. However, even if the data had been correctly interpreted, they were not as clear-cut or as positive as most ESL professionals would like. There is evidently a need for further research addressing at least four questions: Does L2 instruction make a difference? Does type of instruction make a difference? Does type of learner make a difference? Does type of instruction interact with type of learner?

Colloquium on task-based learning

The colloquium included presentations on experimental approaches to curriculum planning in England, Saudi Arabia, Angola, and South India. Of these, the most interesting was N.S. Prabhu's discussion of the communicative teaching project organised by the British Council in Madras and Bangalore, with supporting research at the University of Lancaster, England. The South India project was based on the detailed observation of four classrooms (8 to 15 year-olds) over a period of three years. Like most ESL curriculum innovations during the past decade, the project arose out of dissatisfaction with the structural method. The basic assumption of the researchers was that form is best learnt when the learner's attention is on meaning, saying or doing. Any attempt to influence learning through explicit generalisations about language structure or manipulation of the data is more likely to hinder than help, since (a) what we know about learning indicates that it is an organic developmental process rather than a linear, additive one, and (b) there is no reason to believe that the teacher's generalisations bear any relation to the hypotheses which are part of a learner's formative grammar. The result of applying this 'hands off' principle is that syllabus designers will avoid any planned progression in terms of analytic structural logic, and instead will aim to create situations which will exploit the learners' natural desire to meet a challenge and to use their ingenuity in overcoming it. Accordingly, the experimental program consisted of a series of task-centred lessons, each of which required a sustained period of self-reliant effort by each learner to achieve a clearly defined goal.

The language used in the tasks was controlled in that it conformed to a predetermined difficulty level, but it remained 'natural' in that the particular words or structures used were selected according to the teacher's instinctive judgement of what was likely to be manageable by the learners, or appropriate for solving the task they had in hand. Students were allowed to engage in reception-based tasks for as long as they liked before choosing their own time to begin production; new material was presented orally in the first instance, but the written medium followed closely as an integral part of the task; incorrect language was rephrased by the teacher without distracting attention from the message; and the learners' work was always evaluated for content rather than for formal accuracy. The validity of the claim that students learn the formal categories more efficiently by not talking or thinking about them but by performing meaningful tasks is difficult to judge, since the South India project lacks a structural control group and has not yet developed formal testing procedures in order to quantify the amount of language learned. However, on an impressionistic level, the students' progress in terms of their regular classroom work is 'clear and encouraging', and their interest has remained 'uniformly high' over a series of 300 lessons. The South India project is worthy of attention in that it does not emphasise needs analysis or syllabus design, but depends wholly on creating a genuine language user community in the classroom. Whether or not this approach succeeds, it will have important implications for the development of communicative language teaching in South India and in other parts of the world.

Classroom observation

Marjorie S. Terdal and Prudence Douglas presented an observation scheme designed to raise conscious awareness of teaching behaviours in the ESL classroom, and intended to be used by trainee teachers observing in community colleges or in elementary and secondary schools. The scheme was based on earlier work by Flanders, Moskowitz, Fanselow and others, from which the researchers selected those variables which they believed could be identified and recorded by untrained observers, and which could be objectively described. The two main parts of the coding form - Classroom Management and Learning Environment - corresponded roughly with cognitive and affective behaviours. The items listed under Classroom Management required the observer to examine the cognitive aspects of the classroom by such activities as identifying specific strategies (listening, pronunciation, reading, grammar) and classifying the speech acts used by the instructor. The items listed under Learning Environment focussed the observer's attention on the affective climate in the classroom. With the help of the form, trainee teachers could record both verbal and non-verbal behaviours of teachers and students. In addition, they could look at the ways in which the teacher limited or encouraged the participation of students, and how the students interacted with the teacher, with the materials, and with each other.

The researchers recognised that observing is not a passive activity. Because the observer needs to be actively involved, the form required him/her to cite specific examples of each behaviour as it occurred as well as checking whether the behaviour was characteristic of the class. Furthermore, the researchers believed that for good observation to take place, there must be a dialogue betweeen the observer and the teacher. Accordingly, they included pre-observation and post-observation sections on the form, both of which involved an interview with the teacher. The observer had to talk to the teacher before the class to find out how the lesson would fit into the curriculum as a whole, and again after the class to ask questions about what happened from the teacher's point of view and to avoid possibly coming to the wrong conclusions. Although the Terdal and Douglas scheme was designed for purposes somewhat different from our own, an inspection of their categories led to a useful discussion about the relationship between cognitive and affective domains, the use of high and low inference categories, and the need to incorporate pre-observation and post-observation interviews in order to capture the teacher's perception of what is going on in the classroom.

Conclusions

The sessions I attended in Hawaii were a mixed bag which did not constitute a single coherent program. However, it is possible to draw some general conclusions which are relevant for our project. The first point concerns the need to recognise the true complexity of the language learning process. The trend away from global categorisation and the importance which is now attached to describing the instructional environment as fully as possible has led to a greater awareness of this complexity, together with a willingness to recognise that the L2 classroom need no longer be regarded as an impenetrable 'black box'. Secondly, most speakers agreed that there is a need to look at classroom processes from a number of perspectives: qualitative, mentalistic, and ethnographic. The hope is that by combining these perspectives we may succeed in developing new research techniques which will throw light on previously neglected aspects of classroom interaction, and which will reflect more directly what we are trying to understand. Finally, it was apparent from the conference that the use of terminology is confusing and inconsistent, and that there is little agreement on what is worth looking for or what the appropriate research strategies may be. It is fair to say that the current state of the art in communicative language teaching and classroom-oriented studies is tentative and exploratory. This makes life difficult for people with a low tolerance of ambiguity, but it is promising as a prelude to the development of a more controlled research methodology.

Fifth International Symposium on Educational Testing, University of Stirling, Scotland, June 29 - July 2, 1982

Gila Hanna

The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

Four major topics were discussed at the Conference: (1) Measuring Basic Skills, (2) New Ways of Looking at Validity, (3) Monitoring National Standards over Time, and (4) Assessing First and Second Language Skills. Each day was devoted to a separate topic. There was a plenary session each morning, with two to three invited papers, followed by a panel discussion and then concurrent afternoon sessions for the presentation and discussion of submitted papers.

The following are comments on some of the papers presented.

1. Measuring Basic Skills.

The important questions that require persuasive answers were formulated by R.L. Ebel as follows: What are basic skills? How much emphasis should schools put on them? How should they be measured? Should the goal of basic skills instruction be universal achievement of minimum competence? How should scores on basic skills be used? How can scores on basic skills tests be improved?

2. New Ways of Looking at Validity.

This topic was introduced in the plenary session by L.G. Humphreys. His paper, "Systematic Heterogeneity of Items of Meaningful and Important Psychological Attributes: A Rejection of Unidimensionality", challenged the current position of most psychometricians. It advocated test construction with "maximum heterogeneity" as a goal; in statistical terms this means that test items should be systematically heterogeneous. It also argued that the total test, though designed to measure one major dimension, should also measure a number of secondarv factors ("nonerror noise") that also reflect the contribution of important traits to the total variance. The paper criticized unidimensional tests for being very narrow and thus of little interest and very little predictive validity.

These ideas have yet to be considered carefully and translated into instruments.

3. Monitoring National Standards over Time.

The invited speakers presented historical overviews of national assessment programs. The main thrust of the papers was an examination of some of the major political issues that have to be taken into consideration and of the problems of designing assessment programs technically sound and responsive to political and social realities.

No clear answers were given to such questions as: Should the objectives used to measure student performance address what is being taught, what ought to be taught, or both?: Should item development procedures be revised to take advantage of measurement efficiencies related to heirarchical learning constructs?

4. Assessing First and Second Language Skills.

The first paper presented at the plenary session by R. Mitchell addressed the issue of the classroom assessment of communicative performance. The speaker reviewed critically some of the current developments in language testing and focussed her attention on the problems of native/diagnostic tests of communicative performance. Of special interest was the idea that the tests be capable of administration by classroom teachers and become firmly established as part of the foreign language curriculum.

Some data from research at Stirling was presented.

The second paper described the development of curriculum materials in Welsh for students who are native speakers of Welsh, students who are learning Welsh as a second language, and students who are not native speakers of Welsh but receive their instruction in Welsh (the latter is the equivalent of the Canadian French Immersion). Eurwen Price focussed her talk on the assessment of listening and speaking skills ("oracy" skills), taking into account various modes of presenting Welsh as an L2, linguists' advice on the nature of communicative skills, and the feasibility of the procedures.

The third paper was a discussion of a refinement of the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) speaking test. P.E. Woodward explained how the Institute responded to requests for modification of the original FSI scoring scheme, which consisted of five major levels. The lower end of the scale, 0 to 1+, was further subdivided, and new categories introduced. The 'zero' category, for example, is now composed of two categories: 'novice-low' and 'novice-medium'; the 'one' category became 'intermediate-low' and 'intermediate-medium', and new definitions were formulated. 'Native-low' means 'unable to function in the spoken langauge' while ' novice-medium' means 'able to operate only in a very limited capacity within very predictable areas of need. Vocabulary limited to that necessary to express simple elementary needs and basic courtesy formulae.'

A list of the papers presented at the conference is attached.

Fifth International Symposium on Educational Testing

Sponsored by The Scottish Council for Research in Education, Edinburgh, Scotland
The National Institute of Educational Measurement in The Netherlands (CITO), Arnhem, The Netherlands
and
Educational Testing Service, U.S.A.

June 29-July 2, 1982 University of Stirling Scotland

NEWSLETTER **MAY 1982**

The purpose of this Symposium, which will be held at The Cottrell Building of the University of Stirling, is to bridge the gap which too frequently seems to exist between the creators of educational and psychological theory and everyday practice in educational testing and research.

ACADEMIC PROGRAM

The academic program will consist of symposia of invited contributions during the mornings and of conferences of submitted papers during the afternoons. The official language of the Symposium will be English.

The Symposium lasts four days. Each day is devoted to a separate topic: measuring basic skills, new ways of looking at validity, monitoring national standards over time, and assessing first and second language skills, respectively. Individual submitted papers are as much as possible scheduled on the days devoted to the topic to which the contribution is pertinent.

TUESDAY, JUNE 29, 1982

Measuring Basic Skills

In many places there is concern that students are not acquiring the basic skills considered necessary for coping in society. In deciding whether or not this is the case, a first step, not always taken, is to investigate and define what these necessary skills really are. Then how are they best measured, in what format, under what conditions, to what extent, at what level. Are they of necessity criterion-referenced, or is there need for normative information? What use will be made of the results and how can the scores best be reported to accomplish this use? How important is the concern that minimum competence will become the maximum goal, and what can be done to avoid this result?

Invited speakers (in alphabetical order):

- Robert L. Ebel, Michigan State University, U.S.A.
- Gerard J. Pollock, Scottish Council for Research in Education, Edinburgh, Scotland

Papersession 1.1

1. K. de Glopper, Center for Educational Research, Amsterdam, The Netherlands 'Basic language skills: do they exist?'
2. Jackie Lubbock, City and Guilds of London Institute, London, England 'The measurement of basic numeracy and communication skills by the City and Guilds of London Institute'
3. Kate Moloney, City and Guilds of London Institute, London, England 'The measurement of the artistic and design components in City & Guilds courses'
4. Elizabeth B. Murdoch, Dunfermline College of Physical Education, Edinburgh, Scotland 'Measuring basic skills relevant to physical education'
5. Paul I. Irvine, National Science Foundation, Washington, D.C., U.S.A. 'Classification and labeling issues: toward operationalizing legal definitions of handicapping conditions'

Papersession 1.2

1. John Raven, The Scottish Council for Research in Education, Edinburgh, Scotland 'Identifying, conceptualising, fostering and assessing basic competencies in education'
2. Sydell T. Carlton, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A. 'Reasoning: the fourth R of basic skills assessment'

   Sybil B. Carlson, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A. 'Problem solving--a neglected basic skill'
4. Raimo Konttinen, Institute for Educational Research, University of Jyvaskyla, Finland 'Using teachers' knowledge of their students in setting standards'
5. Judith S. Shoemaker, United States Department of Education, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.
   'Minimum competency testing on trial'

Papersession 1.3

1. William D. Lutz, Rutgers University, Camden, New Jersey, U.S.A. 'Measuring basic skills — reporting scores'
2. John P. Poggio and Douglas R. Glasnapp, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas, U.S.A.
   'An investigation of the redundancy of information provided by tests that measure minimum competence'
3. Douglas R. Glasnapp and John P. Poggio, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas, U.S.A.
   'Characteristics of tests designed to appraise basic skill competence'
4. John R. Hills and F. J. King, The Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida, U.S.A.
   'Detecting biased items in minimum competency tests'
5. Leslie D. McLean, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario, Canada
   'Threats to the validity of large-scale assessments'

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 30, 1982

New Ways of Looking at Validity

Validity is usually accepted as the first proof that all's well with a test. We can all agree that validity is a measure of how well the test measures what it is supposed to. But how well do our traditional procedures in determining validity answer that fundamental question? Are there new ways in which we should be looking at validity? Accepting that validity applies to test use and not to tests themselves, how do we avoid the problem of an infinite number of validities for all possible uses of a test and provide some meaningful summary? Are the standard concepts of content, concurrent, predictive and construct validity still the most useful ways of looking at the subject, or should they be collapsed, subdivided or supplemented?

Invited speakers (in alphabetical order)

- Lloyd G. Humphreys, University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois, U.S.A.
- Wim J. van der Linden, Twente Technical University, The Netherlands

Papersession 2.1

1. W. Miles McPeek, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'A new methodology for assessing the content validity of standardized achievement tests'
2. Eric L. Drever, University of Stirling, Scotland
   'Curriculum objectives as assessment criteria - some problems of validity'
3. Ernest W. Kimmel, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'A different look at the validity of the Scholastic Aptitude Test'
4. Barry R. Morstain, University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware, U.S.A.
   'Testing in civil service employment decisions: some observations on psychometric principles and political realities'
5. Carol Anne Dwyer, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'Technology and test use: examining validity in the computer era'

Papersession 2.2

1. Janice Dowd Scheuneman, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'Effects of test bias on validity'
2. G. Ironson and R. Craig, University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida, U.S.A.
   'The effect of biased items on the validity of a test'
3. Cheryl L. Wild, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A. and Gail Ironson, University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida, U.S.A.
   'The search for the unbiased criterion'
4. Carole D. Slaughter, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A. and William T. McDaniel, Jr., The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, U.S.A.
   'Issues of fairness for subgroup populations in assessing content validity'
5. Cyril Selmes, University of Bath, England
   'The collapse of validity'

Papersession 2.3

1. Richard J. Noeth, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A. 'Validities and vocational behavior: can career development tests predict school to work transition?' [illegible]
2. Robert Hosie, University of Stirling, Scotland
   'Construct validity in a public examination'
3. Joan E. Knapp, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'Alternative validity models for adult learners'
4. A. Jackson Stenner and Malbert Smith III, University of Stirling, Scotland
   'Toward a theory of construct definition'

THURSDAY, JULY 1, 1982

Monitoring National Standards Over Time

There seems to be universal concern about "how are our schools doing"? The burden of providing an answer usually falls on some form of testing. How effectively do our present methods supply us with the information we need to make the necessary judgements, and how can the methods be made more effective? Are there particular forms of testing or types of questions that are most appropriate in measuring school effectiveness or student achievement over time? What form of reporting results most successfully communicates the proper understanding of what is happening? Are there special problems of equating sequential test forms for this purpose? How can curricular changes best be accommodated? What about sampling? Are successive cross-sections sufficient, or do the same students need to be followed longitudinally?

Invited speakers (in alphabetical order)

- Roy Forbes, National Assessment of Educational Progress, Education Commission of the States, Denver, Colorado, U.S.A.
- Derek Foxman, National Foundation for Educational Research, Slough, England
- Ian Plewis, University of London Institute of Education

Papersession 3.1

1. Ian F. Wells, Northern Ireland Council for Educational Research, Belfast, Ireland
   'Teachers' perceptions of a report on mathematics monitoring'
2. Sandra Johnson, University of Leeds, England
   'Monitoring science performance: comparability and reliability considerations'
3. A. Qualter, W. Harlen and J. Ogborn, Centre for Science and Mathematics Education, Chelsea College, University of London, England
   'Assessing dimensions in scientific investigation'

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Papersession 3.2

1. Gemma Giannini, American Society of Clinical Pathologists, Chicago, Illinois, U.S.A.
   'The meaning of scores derived from patient management problems an exploratory study'
2. Frieda C. Rosner, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A. and Kenneth R. Howey, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, U.S.A.
   'Construct validity: new NTE interpretations'
3. Edmund Emmer, University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas, U.S.A. and Frieda C. Rosner, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'A classroom management test: proposed national teacher examinations (NTE) model'
4. Kurt R. G. Ulbricht, Federal Armed Forces University, Munich, Federal Republic of Germany
   "Evaluating the 'curricular validity' of grading procedures"

Papersession 3.3

1. Huub H. F. M. Verstralen, National Institute for Educational Measurement, Arnhem, The Netherlands
   'Some problems in vertical equating of extended curriculum Rasch scales'
2. Gilbert N. Garcia, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.
   'Monitoring national standards over time measuring basic skills'
3. Gourie Mukherjee, Central Connecticut State College, New Britain, Connecticut, U.S.A.
   'Monitoring national standards over time'
4. Steven D. Spaner and Gaylen R. Wallace, University of Missouri, St. Louis, Missouri, U.S.A.
   'Factorial comparison of a self-concept measure across age groups'

FRIDAY, JULY 2, 1982

Assessing First and Second Language Skills

Language learning continues to become more important as the need for international communication increases. Assessment of language competence consequently is more and more critical in supporting learning and certifying competence. Is testing for a second language skill merely an easier version of an existing test in the same language for native speakers? What can test development in second languages tell us about the first language learning and measurement? Are there special problems in going from language A to B not found in going from C to B and, if so, does this call for different testing in language B for the two groups? How can adequate measures of all four language skills — reading, writing, listening and speaking — be adequately assessed with limited time and expense?

Invited speakers (in alphabetical order)

- Rosamond Mitchell, University of Stirling, Scotland
- Eurwen Price, University College, Swansea, Southeast Wales
- Protase Woodford, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.

Papersession 4.1

1. William H. Angoff and Christopher C. Modu, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'Equating the scales of the College Board Spanish Language PAA and the English Language SAT'
2. George Yule, Gillian Brown and Anne Anderson, The Scottish Council for Research in Education, Edinburgh, Scotland
   'The objective assessment of spoken language skills'
3. John H. A. L. de Jong, CITO, Arnhem, The Netherlands
   'Testing foreign language listening comprehension'
4. Barbara J. Merino, University of California, Davis, California, U.S.A., David Ramirez, State Department of Education, Sacramento, California, U.S.A. and Thomas Bye, Valley Unified School District, California, U.S.A.
   'The assessment of oral English proficiency: a status report'

Papersession 4.2

1. Gila Hanna, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario, Canada
   'The use of a factor-analytic model for assessment of longitudinal language achievement data'
2. Gilbert N. Garcia, United States Department of Education, Washington, D.C., U.S.A.
   'Assessing first and second language skills'
3. H. J. C. Wijnen, University of Antwerp, Belgium, and University of Tilburg, The Netherlands
   'On testing student learning at intellectual levels higher than factual recall'
4. Jayjia Hsia, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'Validity of psychological tests for assessing Asian American performance'
5. J. McCall and T. G. K. Bryce, Jordanhill College of Education, Glasgow, Scotland
   'Techniques for the assessment of practical skills (TAPS)'

Papersession 4.3

1. Nancy J. Turner, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, U.S.A.
   'A cross-validation study of data from the Graduate Record Examinations validity study service'
2. Ronda C. Talley, Jefferson County Public Schools, Louisville, Kentucky, U.S.A.
   'The system of multicultural pluralistic assessment as a racially and culturally nondiscriminatory evaluation process'
3. Francis A. Cartier, Defense Language Institute, U.S.A.
   'Decision-referenced testing'
4. Ronda C. Talley, Jefferson County Public Schools, Louisville, Kentucky, U.S.A.
   'Alternatives in multicultural assessment'

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Report on Participation in "Language at Home and at School" conference, Bristol, July 12-14, the Ninth World Congress on Reading, July 26-30, Dublin, Ireland, and two consultations in Dublin and London respectively

Jim Cummins
The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

Language at Home and at School

A description of the purposes and organization of this conference is attached (Appendix G:1) and the most recent summary overview of the Bristol project findings and references is available in the DBP file.

Two aspects of the discussion among conference participants seem of particular relevance for DBP. First, several participants severely criticized the writing tasks developed by Barry Kroll in conjunction with the Bristol project on the grounds of artificiality and unnaturalness. The extension of the project to writing is very recent and findings indicate that reading scores at age 7 are fairly good predictors of writing at 9 and also that parental interest in literacy (assessed when child was 5) had high correlations with writing skills at 9. The paper describing the writing tasks is in the DBP file. The immediate relevance for DBP is that our tasks are subject to the same criticism of being contrived, and in order to answer this criticism with data I feel we should consider validating our writing tasks against teacher-collected natural classroom language samples. This could possibly be done in conjunction with the Toronto Board's grade 4 writing assessment program.

A second theme to emerge strongly in the conference was the central role that children's initial knowledge about and interest in literacy plays in their subsequent literacy development. Participants agreed on the destructive implications of traditional reading "readiness" assessments in that teachers have traditionally witheld literacy-related experiences (e.g. encouragement to explore books) from students who are not "ready". Inclusion of traditional "readiness" measures in addition to the "knowledge of literacy" measures in the DBP longitudinal home interaction study is worth considering in order to compare the predictive power of these very different constructs of the underpinnings of literacy.

Ninth World Congress on Reading

The major themes of relevance to the DBP to emerge in the sessions I attended during this conference concerned the validity of formal tests of literacy. An all-day Precongress Institute entitled "Impact of Child Lanugage Research on Curriculum and Instruction" chaired by Dorothy Strickland on July 26 contained several papers highly critical of traditional multiple-choice tests. The major point was that these tests assessed a form of test-wiseness rather than reading skills themselves. This point was illustrated by several stupid (but allegedly typical) items from standardized tests (see Appendix G:2). It was pointed out that the "right" answer can be chosen for a variety of (valid and invalid) reasons whereas "wrong" answers can be chosen for perfectly logical and valid reasons. In other words, the typical reading measures are inadequate because they focus on product to the exclusion of process.

This point was reinforced in extensive discussions I had with Ken and Yetta Goodman who rejected any form of indirect "non-naturalistic" form of reading or writing assessment.

My personal reaction to these discussions and papers is that the evils of standardized testing, although real, are exaggerated insofar as these tests are used for research purposes involving groups of students. I share the view that regular classroom administration of standardized tests is unnecessary, wasteful of student and teacher time, and counterproductive for curriculum organization. However, the evidence of strong relationships between standardized tests of reading and more "authentic" measures suggests that standardized tests cannot be dismissed as totally invalid. Nevertheless, the objections to multiple-choice measures of the type we have devised in DBP need to be considered seriously as it represents a strong and growing trend in social science research (see Bristol report). My preference at this stage is to attempt to relate (validate?) our measures to "authentic" measures of literacy and language skills in order to be able to answer inevitable criticisms with actual data.

The attached Jaggar model of communication may be of interest to DBPers.

Consultation with Dr. Patricia Fontes, Educational Research Centre, Dublin

Dr. Fontes spent her recent sabbatical in Portugal carrying out research on a Portuguese version of the Otis-Lennon IQ test. She discussed difficulties she had encountered in translating the test into Portuguese that was equally appropriate for urban mainland groups, rural mainland and Azorean groups. She mentioned that considerable materials and test development have been undertaken by the National Portuguese Materials Development Center

Center for Portuguese and Brazilian Studies
Brown University, Providence, R.I. 02912

The contact person there is Luis Miranda.

They have made contact with the Department of Educational Sciences in the New University in the Azores with a view to piloting and norming the materials. Pat Fontes has promised to send me the name of a professor in the Azores University who did his master's (on mastery learning) in Canada and is interested in continuing with a Ph.D. in Canada.

Consultation with Dr. Verity Saifullah Khan and members of the Linguistic Minorities Project (LMP), London, July 22-23 and July 29-30

Discussion with members of the LMP ranged across general comparative issues of minority group experience in Britain and Canada as well as specific issues associated with the administration of questionnaires upon which we in DBP have drawn in constructing our Portuguese students' questionnaire. In relation to the latter point, members of the LMP strongly emphasized the advantages of an illustrated "interesting" questionnaire format over the more traditional variety. They felt student and especially teacher cooperation was improved as a result of this. For their Secondary Pupils' Survey layout and artwork they spent approximately £1000 (about $2,300), so it was not a cheap operation but one well worthwhile, they felt. A copy of their questionnaire is available in DBP files.

There was also extensive discussion of general methodological issues and of the possibility of future cooperation. Their focus has been largely sociolinguistic and social anthropological with lesser focus on linguistic/psychological variables whereas our emphasis has been in the opposite direction.

When their project officially ends in February, 1983 they will have masses of unanalysed and very rich data and they raised the possibility of OISE students interested in the issues using their data base for thesis research. We also discussed in some detail the possibilities of a meeting between our two projects focusing on both theoretical/methodological as well as current social/educational issues relevant to the dissemination concerns of our two projects. The possibility of holding such a meeting will be explored in the coming months.

UNIVERSITY OF BRISTOL SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

FURTHER PROFESSIONAL STUDIES

LANGUAGE AT HOME AND AT SCHOOL

BRISTOL

An overview of the findings of the Bristol Study and a consideration of their implications for education

In co-operation with the Centre for the Study of Language and Communication, a conference relating to the Bristol Language Development Research Programme will be held at the School of Education, University of Bristol, from 2.0 p.m. on Monday, July 12th until lunch-time on Wednesday, July 14th 1982.

The research programme, which has now been running for ten years, was initially set up to study the acquisition and development of language in a representative sample of 'normal' children learning English as their first language, but was later extended to follow some of the children through the early stages of schooling in order to investigate the relationship between pre-school experiences and subsequent attainment at school. In order to achieve these objectives, 128 children have been observed at regular intervals and recordings made of their spontaneous interaction, first at home and then in the classroom. For 32 of the children the longitudinal observations will eventually span the period from 15 months to 10 years 3 months.

From the analysis of this rich and unique collection of data, a number of important findings have emerged:

strong similarities between children in sequence of development;

wide variation in rate of development;

little relationship between rate of development and class of family background in the pre-school years;

the effect of quality of linguistic experience;

the importance of early experience of literacy for subsequent educational attainment.

Many specific findings from the research programme have been reported in print as they have emerged, but this has been largely a one-way communication, without the opportunity for educators to respond. This conference is intended to right the balance. The aims, therefore, are:

1. to present an overview of the research findings, particularly as these are relevant to education;

2. to engage in dialogue with educational practitioners about the implications of these findings.

The conference will thus divide into two main parts, the first concerned with the findings of the research and the second with their implications. In each part there will be both plenary and small-group sessions, and members will have the opportunity to meet members of the research team and to discuss with them the specific aspects of the research in which they are most interested.

The conference will be opened by Professor Peter Robinson, Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of Bristol, and speakers will include Dr. Gordon Wells, Director of the Research Programme and other members of the team. Ron Arnold HMI will introduce the consideration of the implications of the research. Full details of the speakers and the programme of the conference will be sent to all those who apply for membership, but may also be obtained by those interested by writing to the address at the bottom of this leaflet.

Place: University of Bristol School of Education, 35 Berkeley Square, Bristol

Fee: £45.00 (including tuition and light refreshments throughout the conference, supper on Monday and lunch on Tuesday). There will be a free evening on Tuesday when members are asked to make their own arrangements for a meal. Overnight accommodation is not being reserved, but a list of reasonably priced hotels and boarding houses in the vicinity of Berkeley Square is available on request, so that members may make their own arrangements. Members so doing are advised to book accommodation early as the summer months are busy in Bristol.

Grants. Those who serve in maintained schools or colleges may be able to obtain grants from their LEAs towards the cost of tuition and other expenses. Those who intend to apply for grants are advised to do so in advance of the event concerned, but in order to secure a place on a course it may be necessary to make application to the University before a reply is received from the LEA. If a grant is subsequently refused, the application to the University may be withdrawn and any fee paid will be refunded.

Applications: Those wishing to attend the conference are asked to apply to the Further Professional Studies Unit, School of Education, 35 Berkeley Square, Bristol BS8 1JA, giving the following details:

full name (Mr., Mrs. or Miss)
present post
home address and telephone number

The fee should be sent with the application, please, cheques being made payable to the University of Bristol. The closing date for applications if 30th April 1982.

PS.10

UNIVERSITY OF BRISTOL SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Further Professional Studies

LANGUAGE AT HOME AND AT SCHOOL

BRISTOL

SUMMER TERM 1982

PROGRAMME

Monday, 12th July

2.30 p.m.	Opening address: Professor Peter Robinson
3.00	'Language Development in the Pre-School Years' Dr. Gordon Wells
4.30	Tea
5.00 - 6.30	Small group presentations and discussions I - Members of the Research Team
7.00	Buffet supper

Tuesday, 13th July

9.15 a.m.	'Language and Learning: from Home to School' Dr.Gordon Wells
10.45	Coffee
11.15 - 12.45	Small group presentations and discussions II - Members of the Research Team
1. 00 p.m.	Lunch
2. 15	'Language and Learning: Some Wider Considerations' Ron Arnold, H.M.I.
3. 15	Tea
3. 45 - 5. 15	Small group discussions

Wednesday, 14th July

9.15 a.m. -	Small group discussions
10.45	Coffee
11.15 - 12.30	Plenary Session and Conclusion

Small Group Discussions

In the small group sessions (Monday 5.00 - 6.30 and Tuesday 11.15 - 12.45) course members will have an opportunity to discover more about particular aspects of the research and to discuss the work with the member of the research team/responsible for it. As some aspects may prove to be of more general interest than others, course members are asked to select 4 topics in order of preference. Topics will be repeated, if necessary, and every effort will be made to meet the preferences expressed.

Topics

1. Variation in language development in the pre-school years
2. Developing a Scale of Language Development
3. Conversation between adults and children
4. Testing language comprehension
5. Literacy in the home
6. Language in the transition from home to school
7. The development of reading and writing
8. Work in Progress : Some antecedents of school attainment at 10 years
9. Methodology : equipment, techniques and methods of analysis.

PS.10

APPENDIX G:2

READING COMPREHENSION: IT'S MORE THAN GETTING THE "RIGHT" ANSWER

ANGELA M. JAGGAR
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

Illustrative Passages

1) Toni read a story called "An Adventure in Canada." She thought the story was very interesting and wanted to know more about Canada. Her mother told her that their neighbor was from Canada.

What did Toni do that night?

A. She asked her neighbor to tell her about Canada.
B. She ran away to Canada.
C. She made a long distance call to Canada.
D. She read another story about Canada.

2) Dave had enjoyed basketball after school, but it was time to go home. The weather report had predicted rain, and it was really pouring when Dave left the gym. He ran all the way home.As he reached into his rain-soaked trousers, he realized that his house key was missing. "I must have left it in my gym locker," he thought. It was five minutes before dinner, and his mother would be home shortly.

What do you think Dave will do?

A. Stand outside in the rain
B. Break a window and climb in
C. Wait in the carport for his mother
D. Run all the way back to the gym

3) That summer we bought electric fans, drank gallons of ice water, and spent most of our time by the river, but nothing worked. We simply had to resign ourselves to being

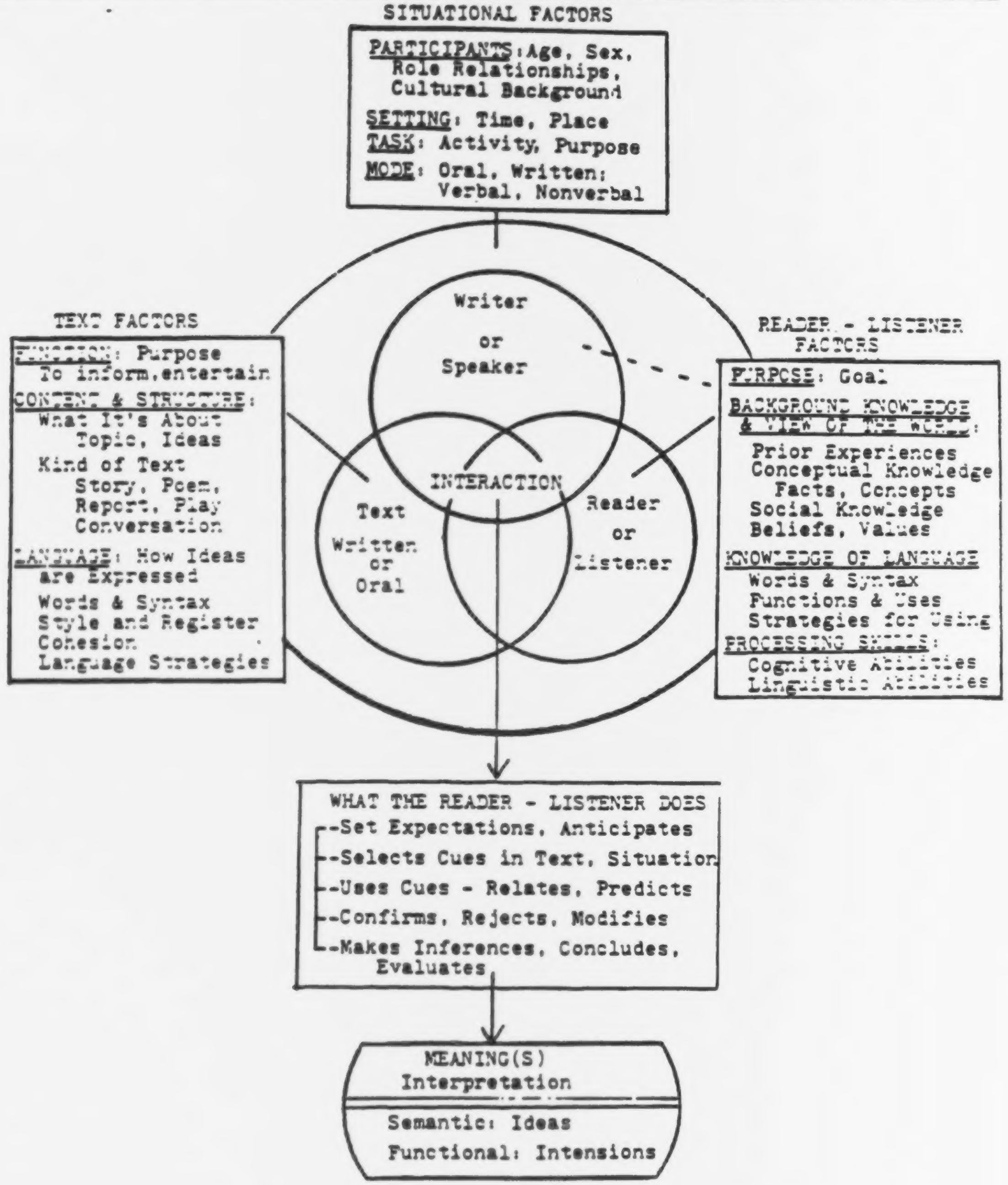
A. hot B. tired C. poor D. sick

Passage No.	SOURCE
1 & 2	Reading Yardsticks, Chicago: Riverside Publishing Co., 1981, Levels 8 & 11, respectively.

3 See discussion of this passage in Don Nix and Marian Schwarz, "Toward a Phenomenology of Reading Comprehension," New Directions in Discourse Processing, vol. 2, Roy O. Freedle (ed.), Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Company, 1979.

COMMUNICATION

Focus: Reading - Listening


SITUATIONAL FACTORS
PARTICIPANTS: Age, Sex, Role Relationships, Cultural Background
SETTING: Time, Place
TASK: Activity, Purpose
MODE: Oral, Written; Verbal, Nonverbal
TEXT FACTORS
FUNCTION: Purpose
To inform, entertain
CONTENT & STRUCTURE:
What It's About
Topic, Ideas
Kind of Text
Story, Poem, Report, Play
Conversation
LANGUAGE: How Ideas are Expressed
Words & Syntax
Style and Register
Cohesion
Language Strategies
Writer or Speaker
INTERACTION
Text Written or Oral
Reader or Listener
READER - LISTENER FACTORS
PURPOSE: Goal
BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE & VIEW OF THE WORLD:
Prior Experiences
Conceptual Knowledge
Facts, Concepts
Social Knowledge
Beliefs, Values
KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE
Words & Syntax
Functions & Uses
Strategies for Using
PROCESSING SKILLS:
Cognitive Abilities
Linguistic Abilities
WHAT THE READER - LISTENER DOES
-Set Expectations, Anticipates
-Selects Cues in Text, Situation
-Uses Cues - Relates, Predicts
-Confirms, Rejects, Modifies
-Makes Inferences, Concludes, Evaluates
MEANING(S)
Interpretation
Semantic: Ideas
Functional: Intensions

Angela M. Jaggar, New York University

APPENDIX H

The Use of a Factor-Analytic Model for Assessment of Longitudinal Language-Achievement Data

Gila Hanna

Modern Language Centre
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

June 1982

Paper presented to the Fifth International Symposium
on Educational Testing, University of Stirling, Scotland
June 29 - July 2, 1982

The Use of a Factor-Analytic Model for Assessment of Longitudinal Language-Achievement Data

Gila Hanna
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

This paper presents findings of a longitudinal study of first-language skills. Test results were examined for two groups of anglophone students: an Immersion group receiving all instruction in French, and a Regular group taught entirely in English. Both groups had been tested twice, in Grade 1 and in Grade 3, using the same set of tests.

The purpose of the study was to determine whether the test results satisfied psychometric conditions essential to their valid interpretation across and within groups. The study had two parts. To assess the validity of a comparison *between* the two groups on the basis of the test results, the study first investigated the assumption that the set of tests measured the same latent traits, in the same units and with the same accuracy, when administered to two different groups of students. To assess the validity of a longitudinal comparison *within* each group, the study then investigated the assumption that the two successive administrations of the set of tests measured the same latent trait ("verbal ability").

The Data

The data on English-language achievement used in this study was drawn from a pool of data collected over a recent ten-year period (1970-1979) by the Bilingual Education Project at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. Originally this data had been used to evaluate several different French Immersion programs. The focus of these annual evaluations was on the effects of various program alternatives on the development of language skills in both first and second language, on achievement in other subjects, and on the development of other cognitive abilities. The results have been presented in a number of papers, as well as in the recent monograph *Bilingual Education in Ontario: A Decade of Research* (Swain & Lapkin, 1981). The two tests used in this study are part of the Metropolitan Achievement Tests (MAT):

1. Word Knowledge: a test of the ability to match the correct written word (in English) with a given picture. Levels 1 and 3 were administered at the end of Grade 1 and Grade 3, respectively. These tests will be referred to as WK 1 (Word Knowledge in Grade 1) and WK 3 (Word Knowledge in Grade 3).
2. Reading: a test of the ability to read silently and comprehend sentences and paragraphs in English. Levels 1 and 3 were administered at the end of Grade 1 and Grade 3, respectively. These tests will be referred to as Read 1 (Reading in Grade 1) and Read 3 (Reading in Grade 3).

The Grade 1 and Grade 3 levels of these tests are not the same, but are clearly comparable in content. Both the Word Knowledge (WK) test and the Reading (Read) test are assumed to measure reading skills; in the MAT battery a Total Reading Score is obtained by adding the scores of these two tests.

Two groups of students were selected from each of the following populations:

1. Immersion classes: anglophone students who receive all their instruction in French throughout Grades 1, 2, and 3 and thus initially learn to read and write in French, their second language;
2. Regular classes: anglophone students who receive all their instruction in English.

The Immersion group consisted of 183 students and the Regular group of 123 students. In each group all the students had taken both tests (WK and Read) in both grades. Both groups comprised students from several schools, but all these schools were represented by both Regular and Immersion classes.

The scores were put in a similar scale by standardizing the within-group variance over all subjects (i.e., over Immersion and Regular students taken together, for each grade separately), using the procedure suggested by Bock (1963). Thus, for each grade level, the scale of the test results and the location of their mean were set to common values. The mean for each grade, Immersion and Regular taken together, was set to 50 and the standard deviation to 10. Tables 1 and 2 show the two variance-covariance matrices, one for the Immersion group and one for the Regular group, and the associated means and standard deviations.

The Model

The method of analysis employed was that of the Lisrel program. Using this program, it is possible to test statistically the goodness-of-fit of *a priori* models that postulate structural relationships among latent (unmeasured) variables as well as among latent and observed variables (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1978). Various Lisrel models have been used recently by Rock and Werts (1979) and by Grandy (1980) for the investigation of the construct validity of tests across populations, by Bachman and Palmer (1981) for the construct validation of the FSI oral interview, and by Munck (1979) to assess the cross-cultural equivalence of I.E.A. achievement measures. The Lisrel program offered the capabilities required for the formulation of the models and the hypotheses used in this analysis. The Lisrel technique was designed, in fact, to cope with a number of considerations which happen to be relevant to the present study (Jöreskog, 1979, pp. 129-130).

1. Most measurements employed in the behavioural and social sciences contain sizeable errors of measurement and any adequate model for the measurement of change must take this fact into account.

2. It is often difficult to obtain repeated measurements using the same measuring instrument (test) because of retest effects. When the measurements at the different occasions are not in the same units, scaling devices may be used to obtain approximately equal units.

3. When there are several measurements employed at each occasion, the question arises as to what traits are actually measured at each occasion and how these are related. Special care must be taken to obtain measurements that actually measure the relevant latent traits or hypothetical constructs.

4. It may not be possible, nor even desirable to specify the model completely. There may be other models which are equally plausible and a technique for choosing the most reasonable one is required. Further, if there is sufficient evidence to reject a given model the technique should suggest which part of the model is causing the poor fit.

The Lisrel model shown in Figure 1 was constructed to test for the existence of the various psychometric prerequisites for valid comparisons between and within the two groups. This model assumes, as do the MAT specifications, that the tests WK and Read are indicators of the same ability. In other words, it assumes that V_1 and V_3 are the common parts (latent traits) of the Grade 1 pair of tests and the Grade 3 pair of tests respectively. The score on an observed variable in Grade 1 is composed of V_1 ("verbal ability") and an error term. (The error term comprises error of measurement and possibly other abilities specific to individual tests.) The score on WK 1, for example, may be written as follows:

$$\text{WK } 1 = \lambda_1 V_1 + \epsilon_1$$

The errors or unique factors, ϵ, are assumed to be uncorrelated both within and between grades.

As shown in Figure 1, there are nine parameters to be estimated: four factors loadings (λs), four error variances or uniquenesses (θ_ϵs), and one correlation between the latent variables (ρ). For an analysis such as this to be feasible there must be fewer parameters to be estimated than there are unique elements in the input covariance matrices. In this case there are nine parameters to be estimated and ten elements in the covariance matrix (4 x 5 + 2 = 10).

In this model there are three parameter matrices, Λ, Φ, and Θ. The matrix Λ is a 4 x 2 matrix of factor loadings. Φ is a 2 x 2 correlation matrix (or variance-covariance matrix of the Vs) and Θ is a diagonal matrix of error variance. The expected variance-covariance matrix of the tests is:

$$\Sigma = \Lambda_x \Phi \Lambda_x' + \Theta$$

Testing Between-Group Psychometric Assumptions

Hypotheses

As mentioned above, one aim of the study was to test the hypotheses of similar factor pattern, equal units of measurement and equal accuracy of measurement between the two groups.

Using the Lisrel model described in Figure 1, the data from the two groups was analyzed simultaneously, with the appropriate parameters constrained to be equal across the two groups. Three hypotheses were tested:

1. that the two groups had the same factor pattern (i.e., that the tests measured the same latent traits in both groups).

   $H_{n=2}$: $X = \Lambda_x V + \epsilon$ holds in both groups

2. that, given that the two groups had the same factor pattern, the corresponding factor loadings for the two groups are equal (i.e., that the latent traits are measured in the same units in both groups).

   $H_{\Lambda}: \quad \Lambda_x^{Imm} = \Lambda_x^{Reg}$

3. that, assuming the two hypotheses $H_{n=2}$ and H_{Λ}, the estimates of standard error of measurement for the two groups are equal (i.e., the corresponding latent traits are measured with the same accuracy in both groups).

$$H_{\Lambda\theta}: \quad \theta_{\epsilon}^{\mathrm{Imm}} = \theta_{\epsilon}^{\mathrm{Reg}}$$

Results of Between-Group Analyses

The results of the simultaneous Lisrel analyses are summarized in Table 3. The following is a discussion of these results.

Equivalent Factor Patterns

The units of measurement for each factor were determined by the WK 1 and WK 3 tests respectively. This was done by fixing the factor loadings λ_1 and λ_3 to unity. The Lisrel program provided the maximum likelihood estimates of the remaining 18 free parameters. 9 in each group (2 factor loadings. 3 variance-covariance elements of the factors. 4 error variances). The hypothesis that the two groups had the same factor pattern yielded a χ^2 of 0.03 with 2 degrees of freedom (p= 0.97). These results do not suggest a rejection of the hypothesis. It is clear that the two-factor model fits the data very well for both groups.

Equality of Units of Measurement

To test for units of measurement across the two groups. the previous model was modified by specifying the corresponding factor loadings to be equal across the two groups. This more restrictive model yielded a χ^2 of 9.81 with 4 degrees of freedom (p=0.04). The increase of χ^2 with the increase in degrees of freedom from the previous hypothesis. $H_{n=2}$. is a test of the hypothesis of equality of units of measurement. An increase in χ^2 of 9.78 with 2 degrees of freedom is significant at less than the 0.01 level, indicating that the hypothesis of equal units of measurement should be rejected. This more restrictive model is not consistent with the data.

Equality of Accuracy of Measurement

The model used to test the equality of units was further constrained by setting the respective estimates of standard error of measurement to be equal across the two groups. The analysis yielded a χ^2 of 18.46 with 8 degrees of freedom ($p=0.02$), indicating that this model is not consistent with the data. (This result is not surprising, since constraints were added to a model already known to give a poor fit.)

Summary of the Between-Group Analyses

The simultaneous analysis of the two groups lent support to the hypothesis that the two groups had the same factor pattern. However, the units of measurement and the errors of measurement differed between the two groups. Thus the analysis led to the conclusion that the two pairs of tests WK and Read measure the same traits across the two groups, but not in the same units or with the same accuracy. The implication is that any interpretation of the score difference between the two groups may be questionable; there is a strong presumption of test bias.

Testing Within-Group Psychometric Assumptions

Hypotheses

Another aim of the study was to investigate the assumption that within each group the same latent trait was measured on two occasions (in Grade 1 and again in Grade 3), i.e., to test the hypothesis that the correlation between the true scores V_1 and V_3 is unity. Confirmation of this hypothesis would support the use of the Grade 1 and Grade 3 test results for a longitudinal comparison of verbal ability; on the other hand, such a comparison would be meaningless if there were no evidence in the data that the same trait was measured on the two occasions.

Four hypotheses were tested, in fact, with this model:

1. that the two tests for each grade level are parallel and that the correlation between the latent traits V_1 and V_3 is unity.

$$H_1: \lambda_1=\lambda_2; \lambda_3=\lambda_4; \theta_1{}^2=\theta_2{}^2; \theta_3{}^2=\theta_4{}^2; \rho=1$$

2. as H_1, except that ρ is free (not fixed to unity).

$$H_2: \lambda_1=\lambda_2; \lambda_3=\lambda_4; \theta_1{}^2=\theta_2{}^2; \theta_3{}^2=\theta_4{}^2$$

3. that the tests are congeneric (i.e., that neither the factor loadings nor the error variances are constrained to be equal as in H_1 and H_2), and that the ρ is unity.

H_3: $\rho = 1$

4. as H_3, except that ρ is free (not fixed to unity).

H_4: All parameters are free

These hypotheses were tested for each of the two variance-covariance matrices (Immersion and Regular groups, see Tables 1 and 2).

Results of Within-Group Analyses

The results of the Lisrel analyses are summarized in Tables 4 and 5 (Immersion group) and Tables 6 and 7 (Regular group). The following is a discussion of these results.

Immersion Group

For the hypotheses H_1 to H_3 the χ^2 values indicate poor overall fit (Table 4). H_1 yielded a χ^2 of 76.00 with 6 degrees of freedom ($p < .00$), H_2 a χ^2 of 23.19 with 5 degrees of freedom ($p < .00$), and H_3 a χ^2 of 62.72 with 8 degrees of freedom ($p < .00$). These results suggest the rejection of H_1 (that the tests are parallel and $\rho = 1$), H_2 (that the tests are parallel), and H_3 (that the tests are congeneric and $\rho = 1$).

It is also worthwhile to examine the differences between the χ^2 values for the four hypotheses; these differences, which themselves are values of χ^2, are presented in Table 5. The hypothesis that $\rho = 1$ is tested by the two χ^2 values with one degree of freedom shown in Table 5 as row differences (H_1 against H_2, and H_3 against H_4). The associated χ^2 values of 52.81 and 62.70 are highly significant, indicating that the hypothesis $\rho = 1$ should be rejected, regardless of whether the tests are viewed as parallel or congeneric.

The hypothesis that the measures are parallel is represented by the χ^2 values with 4 degrees of freedom shown in Table 5 as column differences (H_1 against H_3, and H_2 against H_4). The associated χ^2 values were 13.28 for the case that $\rho = 1$ and 23.17 for the case that $\rho \neq 1$. Both values are significant, indicating that the hypothesis that the measures are parallel should be rejected.

H_4 is therefore the most reasonable hypothesis for the immersion group. According to this hypothesis, the measures within a grade in this group are not parallel, and the trait in grade 1 has a true-score correlation of less than 1 with the trait in grade 3.

Regular Group

As shown in Table 6, hypotheses H_1 and H_3 yielded a poor fit while both H_2 and H_4 yielded an acceptable fit. As before, the differences between the χ^2 values for the four hypotheses were computed, and are reported in Table 7. The differences between H_1 and H_2 and between H_3 and H_4 yielded χ^2 values with 1 degree of freedom (row differences) of 27.10 and 28.05 respectively, both highly significant. Thus the hypothesis that $\rho = 1$ must be rejected.

The hypothesis of parallelism was tested by contrasting the χ^2 values of H_1 and H_3 and of H_2 and H_4. The resulting χ^2 values with 4 degrees of freedom (column differences) were 4.46 (when $\rho = 1$) and 5.41 (when $\rho \neq 1$); neither is significant. Thus the hypothesis that the two pairs of tests are parallel cannot be rejected.

H_2 is the hypothesis that should be retained: the tests are parallel and $\rho \neq 1$.

Estimation of the Correlation Coefficient

As discussed in the previous section, a structural equation model led to rejection of the hypothesis that the correlation coefficient, corrected for attenuation, between the Grade 1 and Grade 3 test results (ρ) was equal to 1. The same model made it possible to estimate the value of this coefficient (Tables 8 and 9).

The maximum likelihood estimates of the correlation coefficient between the true scores V_1 and V_3 are only $\rho = 0.75$ with a standard error of 0.04 for the Immersion group (with the hypothesis H_4), and $\rho = 0.73$ with a standard error of 0.06 for the Regular group (with the hypothesis H_2). Thus a model with ρ unconstrained yielded, approximately at the 95% confidence interval, $0.67 < \rho < 0.83$ for the Immersion group and $0.61 < \rho < 0.85$ for the Regular group.

Summary of the Within-Group Analyses

The results of the within-group analyses indicate that the tests administered in Grade 1 and again in Grade 3 do not measure the same trait, for either group. It appears that the tests WK and Read may be measuring different cognitive abilities at the different grade levels. The implication is that within each group longitudinal comparisons of level of performance on these tests may be inappropriate.

Additional Analysis: A Revised Model

An examination of the maximum likelihood estimates shown in Table 8, together with the results discussed above, suggested a revised model for the Immersion data. The model used for hypothesis H_2 (which fitted the Regular data adequately) was modified slightly to accommodate the Immersion data as well. The original hypothesis (H_2) required that the tests be parallel in both grades 1 and 3, while the modified hypothesis (H_5) relaxed this requirement and postulated instead a model in which the tests were parallel only in Grade 3:

H_5: $\lambda_3 = \lambda_4$; $\theta_3^2 = \theta_4^2$; all other parameters free

With this model H_5 yielded a χ^2 value of 0.54 with 3 degrees of freedom, an acceptable fit for the data.

Since the model for H_4 also provided an acceptable fit, the two χ^2 values were compared. Moving from H_5 to H_4 represents a decrease in χ^2 value of only 0.52, with a loss of 2 degrees of freedom. Since the difference in χ^2 value is not significant, the model for H_5 can be said to fit the data as well as that for H_4; there is no basis for rejecting H_5 in favour of H_4.

Thus in the case of the Immersion group the two tests WK 1 and Read 1 cannot be considered to be parallel in their ability to measure the latent trait V_1 (while the tests WK 3 and Read 3 can indeed be considered parallel measures of V_3).

Inspection of the maximum likelihood estimates for H_5 (Immersion group, Table 10) reveals that λ_1, the factor loading of WK 1 on V_1, is rather high (10.82), and that θ_1^2 is close to zero (0.42). This means that the score on WK 1 consists almost entirely of the true score and has little or no unique part.

These results can also be taken as an indication that WK 1 measures V_1 more reliably than does Read 1. This finding appears to be consistent with the fact that the Immersion group had received no instruction in reading (in English). A test of the ability to read sentences and paragraphs, such as Read 1, could not be expected to measure adequately what the students had never been taught. On the other hand, it is reasonable to assume that WK 1, requiring only the matching of a correct word to a given picture, would adequately measure the ability to recognize single words.

By Grade 3, however, the two tests WK 3 and Read 3 measure V_3 equally well (see the factor loadings in Table 8 and Table 10). This is consistent with the fact that instruction in reading in English starts at the beginning of Grade 3 in the Immersion program.

Conclusion

Examining test results in first-language skills from two groups of students, this study sought to determine whether valid comparisons could be made between the two groups or within each group. Through confirmatory factor analysis using a Lisrel model, the study showed that the prerequisite psychometric conditions for such valid comparisons did not exist.

The study reached the following two specific conclusions:

1. Comparisons of the two groups on the basis of their respective level of performance on single tests may not be valid. This is because the tests WK and Read, though found to measure the same traits

across the two groups. did not measure these traits in the same units or with the same accuracy.

2. Comparisons within each group on the basis of the level of performance in two different grades may not be valid. The results of the Lisrel analysis would indicate that different traits were measured by the tests at the two grade levels.

The implication of the findings is that researchers should be cautious when comparing cognitive behaviour across groups or within groups. Administering the same tests to two groups does not necessarily imply that the tests measure traits in the same way. or even that they measure the same traits.

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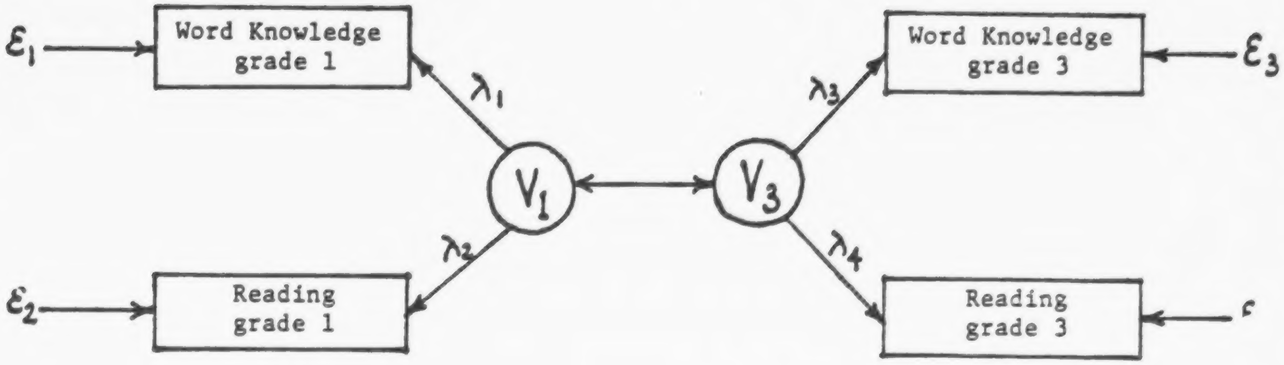
ε_1
Word Knowledge grade 1
λ_1
ε_2
Reading grade 1
λ_2
V_1
V_3
λ_3
Word Knowledge grade 3
ε_3
λ_4
Reading grade 3

Figure 1. Two congeneric tests in grade 1 and two congeneric tests in grade 3

Table 1

Covariances, Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations
Immersion Group N=183

Test	WK 1	RD 1	WK 3	RD 3
WK 1	117.440	.730	.672	.673
RD 1	82.500	108.690	.496	.496
WK 3	74.320	52.180	101.940	.814
RD 3	75.830	53.710	85.480	108.060
Mean	46.989	47.743	50.508	50.989
SD	10.837	10.425	10.097	10.836

Table 2

Covariances, Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations
Regular Group N=123

Test	WK 1	RD 1	WK 3	RD 3
WK 1	80.020	.677	.540	.449
RD 1	58.100	92.090	.569	.468
WK 3	48.120	54.360	99.150	.713
RD 3	41.310	46.210	72.990	105.800
Mean	55.016	53.040	50.902	50.008
SD	8.945	9.596	9.957	10.285

Table 3

Summary of Tests of Equivalent
Parameters Across Two Groups

H	Free Parameters	χ^2	d.f.	P	Decision
$H_{n=2}$	18	0.027	2	.99	Accepted
H_{Λ}	16	9.808	4	.04	Rejected
$H_{\Lambda\theta}$	12	18.465	8	.02	Rejected

Table 4

Summary of Analyses
Immersion Group

H	Free parameters	χ^2	d.f.	P
H_1	4	76.00	6	.00
H_2	5	23.19	5	.00
H_3	8	62.72	2	.00
H_4	9	0.02	1	.89

Note

$H_1 : \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 \quad \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 \quad \theta_1^2 = \theta_2^2 \quad \theta_3^2 = \theta_4^2 \quad \rho = 1$

$H_2 : \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 \quad \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 \quad \theta_1^2 = \theta_2^2 \quad \theta_3^2 = \theta_4^2$

$H_3 : \rho = 1$ (other parameters free)

H_4 : All parameters free

Table 5

Test of Hypotheses
Immersion Group

	Parallel	Congeneric	
$\rho = 1$	$\chi_6^2 = 76.00$	$\chi_2^2 = 62.72$	$\chi_4^2 = 13.28$
$\rho \neq 1$	$\chi_5^2 = 23.19$	$\chi_1^2 = 0.02$	$\chi_4^2 = 23.17$
	$\chi_1^2 = 52.81$	$\chi_1^2 = 62.70$	

Table 6

Summary of Analyses Regular Group

H	Free Parameters	χ^2	d.g.	P
H_1	4	32.52	6	.00
H_2	5	5.42	5	.37
H_3	8	28.06	2	.00
H_4	9	0.01	1	.93

Note

H_1 : $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 \quad \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 \quad \theta_1^2 = \theta_2^2 \quad \theta_3^2 = \theta_4^2 \quad \rho = 1$

H_2 : $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 \quad \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 \quad \theta_1^2 = \theta_2^2 \quad \theta_3^2 = \theta_4^2$

H_3 : $\rho = 1$ (other parameters free)

H_4 : All parameters free.

Table 7

Tests of Hypotheses Regular Group

	Parallel	Congeneric	
$\rho = 1$	$\chi_6^2 = 32.52$	$\chi_2^2 = 28.06$	$\chi_4^2 = 4.46$
$\rho \neq 1$	$\chi_5^2 = 5.42$	$\chi_1^2 = 0.01$	$\chi_4^2 = 5.41$
	$\chi_1^2 = 27.10$	$\chi_1^2 = 28.05$	

Table 8

Maximum Likelihood Estimates (LISREL)
Immersion Group

Parameter	Model for H_2		Model for H_4	
	V	V	V	V
λ_1	9.08	0	10.82	0
λ_2	9.08	0	7.63	0
λ_3	0	9.25	0	9.15
λ_4	0	9.25	0	9.34
ρ	0.76		0.75	
θ_1^2	30.57		0.42	
θ_2^2	30.57		50.52	
θ_3^2	19.52		18.16	
θ_4^2	19.52		20.83	
χ^2	23.19		0.02	
df	5		1	
P	0.00		0.89	

Table 9

Maximum Likelihood Estimates (LISREL)
Regular Group

Parameter	Model for H_2		Model for H_4	
	V_1	V_3	V_1	V_3
λ_1	7.62	-	7.18	-
λ_2	7.62	-	8.09	-
λ_3	-	8.54	-	9.25
λ_4	-	8.54	-	7.89
ρ	0.73		0.73	
θ^2_1	27.95		28.50	
θ^2_2	27.95		26.58	
θ^2_3	29.48		13.63	
θ^2_4	29.48		43.50	
χ^2	5.42		0.01	
df	5		1	
p	0.37		0.93	

Table 10

Maximum Likelihood Estimates (LISREL) Immersion Group

Parameter	Model for H_5	
	V_1	V_3
λ_1	10.82	-
λ_2	7.63	-
λ_3	-	9.24
λ_4	-	9.24
ρ	0.75	
θ_1^2	0.45	
θ_2^2	50.51	
θ_3^2	19.52	
θ_4^2	19.52	
χ^2	0.54	
df	3	
p	0.91	

THE DEVELOPMENT OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY:

Second Year Report

Submitted to the SSHRCC
by the Principal Investigators
and Staff of the Project

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I INTRODUCTION

The Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project is now two-thirds of the way through its second year of operation. This report details the work of the Project during the past eight months from September 15, 1982, to May 31, 1983. It follows on from an earlier report of the first year of research entitled The Development of Bilingual Proficiency: Interim Report on the First Year of Research (henceforth called the Year 1 Report), which was submitted to the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada in September 1982.

The present report is organized in the following manner. In this introductory chapter, information concerning staffing, consultants, visitors, and conferences is provided . In Chapter II, a brief review is presented of the theoretical framework for the Project and its evolution since the research began. Chapter III is concerned with the relationship between different aspects of language proficiency. It is devoted mainly to the description of a large-scale study involving the development of a model of language proficiency. This study represents the core of the Project's work during the first one and a half years. Two small-scale studies are also summarized in this chapter: one deals at a detailed level with the issue of how different aspects of language proficiency are related and with scoring methodology, and the other considers the role of mother tongue transfer in some of the written production data collected in the context of the large-scale proficiency study. Chapter IV describes the development and extensive piloting of an observation instrument designed to capture the communicative orientation of a variety of second language (L2) classrooms. The ultimate purpose of this observation instrument is to clarify the relationship between instructional variables and the development of proficiency in a target language. Chapter V is devoted to the issue of how societal factors affect the development of bilingual proficiency in various minority contexts. This chapter reports on the progress to date of a large-scale study of the relationship between language use patterns, language attitudes, and proficiency in English and Portuguese among students of Portuguese home language background in Toronto. Summaries of two sociolinguistic ethnographic studies currently underway in other Toronto language communities are also provided: one study of a Francophone school, and another study in the Chinese community. Chapter VI concludes with a description of the studies that are planned for Years 3-5 of the Project. In addition, a number of papers are appended to the report. They provide more detailed accounts of the small-scale studies that are briefly summarized in the body of the report, and also include several other studies related to the work of the Project.

Staff - Year 2 (up to May 31, 1983)

(a) Principal Investigators:

Patrick Allen
Jim Cummins
Raymond Mougeon
Merrill Swain

(b) Project Managers:

Birgit Harley (100%)
Sharon Lapkin (40%)

(c) Researchers:

Jud Burtis, 50% (from February 15)	experimental design and analysis
Roma Chumak, Graduate Assistant	development of recording techniques
Marilou Covey, Graduate Assistant	material development, English interviewing
Maria Fröhlich, 60%-80% (60% from September 15-April 30, 80% from May 1)	classroom observation
Gila Hanna, 50% (from September 15 - January 1)	experimental design and analysis

Gordon Harewood, OISE Graduate Assistant	testing
Mary Lou King, 100%	experimental design and analysis, material development
José Lopes, 100%	Portuguese linguistics, material development, testing
Françoise Pelletier, 100% (from October 25)	French linguistics, scoring, classroom observation
Nina Spada, Graduate Assistant	classroom observation
Mireille Tremblay, 100% (from November 1)	French linguistics, scoring, testing, data analysis
Andrea Vechter, Graduate Assistant	library research
Virginia Won, 50%	material development, ethnography

(d) Associates:

Dr. Ellen Bouchard Ryan, Visiting Scholar, from the Psychology Department of the University of Notre Dame, has been working with the Project research team. She has been particularly involved in the design and analyses of the attitude and language use questionnaires employed in the sociolinguistic survey of the Toronto Portuguese community.

Dr. Jamshid Etezadi-Amoli, a graduate of the University of Toronto, has served as statistical consultant to the Project, carrying out confirmatory factor analyses using the LISREL program.

Dr. Monica Heller, Post-doctoral Fellow, is a graduate from the University of California (Berkeley). She is contributing to the Project through sociolinguistic, ethnographic research in a Toronto French language school.

Dr. Jan Hulstijn, a graduate of the University of Amsterdam, who lectures in Applied Linguistics at the Free University in Amsterdam, has contributed to the Project on a Post-doctoral Fellowship awarded to him by the Netherlands Organization for the Advancement of Pure Research. He has spent the year working on (1) methodological problems in measuring and analyzing different components of second language proficiency, and (2) studies concerned with cognitive processing of linguistic input from both an artificial language and from a natural second language.

Dr. Grace Pung Guthrie, Post-doctoral Fellow, is a graduate of the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign. Her work has involved an ethnographic study of the Toronto Chinese community.

Activities

Since September 1982, the various studies being conducted within the framework of the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project have been carried out concurrently. The following represents an overview of the timing of the main phases of each study.

1. Proficiency studies

September - April	scoring of tests and data analysis, generalizability studies
April - May	factor analysis

2. Classroom observation

September - December	refinement of observation categories
January - May	piloting of instrument and data coding

3. Environmental studies

(a) Portuguese study

September - February	development of instruments
February - March	piloting and revision of instruments
April - May	testing in schools

(b) Ethnographic studies

September - December	planning phase
January - May	observation, interviews, questionnaires, taping of students

Visitors

The following visitors to the Modern Language Centre gave seminars on topics of relevance to the work of the Project:

October, 1982	Professor Sascha Felix, Department of Linguistics, University of Passau, Germany. "Competition of Cognitive Systems in Second Language Acquisition".

November, 1982	Professor Steve Chesarek, University of Montana, Bozeman. "Developmental Relationship between Language and Thought: A Longitudinal Study in Two Crow Indian Bilingual Communities".
January, 1983	Dr. Janet Holmes, English Language Institute, University of Victoria, Wellington, New Zealand. "How to Sound Convincingly Doubtful in English: Problems in Second Language Learning".
February, 1983	Professor Harold Rosen, Institute of Education, University of London. "A Sociolinguistic Perspective on the Language of Minority Children".
March, 1983	Dr. Maggie Bruck, Learning Centre, McGill University. "Predictors and Consequences of Switching Out of French Immersion Programs".
April, 1983	Dr. Peter Muysken, Department of General Linguistics, University of Amsterdam. "Constraints on Code Mixing".

Conferences

Several Project members attended conferences during the year that were related to the work of the Project.

Merrill Swain was a plenary speaker at the International Symposium on Language Testing at Hong Kong University in December 1982. She spoke on "Large-scale Communicative Language Testing" (see Appendix File 1)[1] drawing on the work of test development activities of the Project and other research projects in the Modern Language Centre.

Sharon Lapkin gave a keynote address at the Calgary area meeting of Canadian Parents for French in January 1983 entitled "How well do immersion students speak and write French?" (see Appendix File 2).

Jim Cummins gave an invited plenary presentation at the Portuguese Bilingual Education Conference, Sacramento, California, in March 1983 (see Appendix A for a report on the conference).

The annual TESOL Convention which was held in Toronto in March 1983 was well attended by Project members. A presentation on the classroom observation scheme was made at the Convention by Patrick Allen, Maria Fröhlich, and Nina Spada.

Finally, Jim Cummins and José Lopes are scheduled to speak about the sociolinguistic study in the Portuguese community at the Second Annual Conference on Portuguese Language and Culture to be held in June 1983 in Toronto.

II THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The general theoretical framework within which the Development of Bilingual Proficiency study is being conducted is outlined in Figure II:1 (from page 26 of the original proposal). The framework identifies three categories of variables -- social context, learning conditions, and learner characteristics -- which affect the process and outcomes of second language learning. Our studies in the first two years of the Project have been aimed primarily at clarifying the nature of the learning outcomes as well as exploring the influence of social, educational, and individual variables on these outcomes.

The work of the Project has been both theoretically and empirically focussed and, as a consequence, our theoretical constructs have evolved considerably from those in the original proposal. Here we briefly describe how our theoretical model of 'language proficiency' has evolved and how that evolution has influenced the choice of measures for the empirical studies.

Evolution of the Theoretical Model of Language Proficiency

In the original proposal four independently developed schemes relevant to the construct of 'language proficiency' or 'communicative competence' were described and a preliminary attempt was made to integrate them. The four schemes were: (a) the communicative competence model developed by Canale and Swain (1980); (b) the distinction between cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) and basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) (Cummins 1980, 1981; Swain 1981a); (c) the ways in which linguistic knowledge is represented implicitly and explicitly (Bialystok 1978); and (d) the incorporation of structural, functional, and instrumental levels of communicative competence within a second language teaching curriculum (Allen 1980). These schemes are described in detail in the original proposal (pages 4 - 16).

These different perspectives on the nature of language proficiency were integrated by placing them on a more general scale which described language learning and use. The end points of this scale involved language use in 'context-independent' and 'context-dependent' situations. Literacy-related and metalinguistic tasks which relied very little or not at all on concrete contextual cues were placed at the context-independent end of the dimension while conversational uses of language in face-to-face situations were at the context-dependent end.

Subsequent to the initiation of the Project all four schemes evolved somewhat independently but in convergent directions. The evolution of the curriculum-based communicative dimensions (Allen 1980) is described in Chapter IV dealing with the development of the classroom observation instrument. The evolution of the other schemes is described here.

Communicative competence. The original dimensions or traits distinguished by Canale and Swain (1980) were grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competencies. There has been little disagreement in the subsequent literature (see e.g. Oller 1983) about the need to distinguish grammatical from sociolinguistic competence. The major refinement (e.g. Canale 1981; Bachman and Palmer 1982) has been to include discourse competence as an independent component of the model. This competence is usually described in terms of the organization of linguistic messages with regard to their cohesion and coherence (Halliday and Hasan 1976), although the boundaries between grammatical and discourse competence are not entirely clear. For example, is the use of within-sentence cohesive devices an aspect of discourse or grammatical competence?

The role attributed to strategic competence has tended to be somewhat unclear in recent empirical work (e.g. Bachman and Palmer 1982). Strategic competence was regarded by Canale and Swain (1980) as knowledge of the appropriate techniques for learning and using language effectively when communication might otherwise break down. The major issue appears to be whether this is a separate component of proficiency or a dimension that is involved in manifesting grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic competencies in specific contexts.

The measurement of strategic competence has proven difficult because it cannot be assessed independently of actual competence in different aspects of the language (e.g. Cummins, Swain, Nakajima, Handscombe, Green, and Tran in press). In other words, failure to manifest particular communicative strategies could indicate either that the individual has low strategic competence, or alternatively, that her/his competence in other aspects of the language is sufficiently high that there are no communicative difficulties to be overcome.

These considerations led us to distinguish between grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic competencies in the theoretical model we developed for empirical testing. Although discourse and grammatical competencies were not found to be independent traits in the Bachman/Palmer study, the conceptual distinction between these dimensions argues for assessing the extent to which they might be distinguishable in learning contexts very different from that involved in the Bachman/Palmer study.

Language proficiency and academic skills. The distinction between CALP and BICS proved controversial among researchers (e.g. Edelsky, Altwerger, Barkin, Flores, Hudelson, Jilbert 1983; Rivera in press). From our perspective (Cummins and Swain 1983) much of the criticism seemed to stem from a misinterpretation of the acronyms BICS and CALP. For example, we emphasized that the distinction was not between 'cognitive' and 'communicative' aspects of language proficiency insofar as BICS referred only to some salient rapidly developed aspects of communicative proficiency, and that the distinction by no means included everything encompassed by the notion of 'communicative competence' (Canale and Swain 1980). Similarly, based on Wells' (1981) work, it was stressed that CALP was socially grounded and could only develop within a matrix of human interaction (Cummins 1981; Swain 1981a). Nevertheless, the distinction was being interpreted to mean that communicative proficiency was independent of cognition and that cognitive/academic skills were independent of communicative interactions (Edelsky et al. 1983). These misinterpretations led us to incorporate the BICS-CALP distinction into a more elaborate theoretical framework in which two underlying dimensions related to cognitive and contextual demands are distinguished (Cummins 1981, 1983; Swain 1981b).

The framework in Figure II:2 proposes that 'language proficiency' can be conceptualized along two continuums. First is a continuum relating to the range of contextual support available for expressing or receiving meaning. The extremes of this continuum are described in terms of context-embedded versus context-reduced communication. They are distinguished by the fact that in context-embedded communication the participants can actively negotiate meaning (e.g. by providing feedback that the message has not been understood) and the language is supported by a wide range of meaningful paralinguistic and situational cues; context-reduced communication, on the other hand, relies primarily (or at the extreme of the continuum, exclusively) on linguistic cues to meaning and thus successful interpretation of the message depends heavily on knowledge of the language itself. In general, context-embedded communication is more typical of the everyday world outside the classroom, whereas many of the linguistic demands of the classroom (e.g. manipulating text) reflect communicative activities which are close to the context-reduced end of the continuum. This distinction owes much to that which Margaret Donaldson (1978) makes between embedded and disembedded language and cognition. The framework has also been related to the work of Bruner (1975), Olson (1978) and Bereiter and Scardamalia (1981).

The upper parts of the vertical continuum consist of communicative tasks and activities in which the linguistic tools have become largely automatized (mastered) and thus require little active cognitive involvement for appropriate performance. At the lower end of the continuum are tasks and activities in which the communicative tools have not become automatized and thus require active cognitive involvement. Persuading another individual that your point of view is correct and writing an essay are examples of quadrant B and D skills respectively. The CALP (quadrant D) - BICS (quadrant A) distinction is fully retained within this framework.

Representation of linguistic knowledge. A framework which is similar in many respects to that in Figure II:2 has been developed separately by Bialystok and Ryan (in press, see Appendix I and Appendix File 3). This framework draws primarily on developmental and experimental psychological studies as well as on the psycholinguistic literature cited by Bialystok (1978) in originally developing the distinction between explicit and implicit representation of linguistic knowledge. The two dimensions along which, it is argued, a variety of linguistic and cognitive/academic tasks can be described, involve (a) analyzed knowledge and (b) cognitive control. The framework is outlined in Figure II:3 and the approximate locations of conversational, literacy, and metalinguistic tasks in respect to the underlying dimensions can be seen.

The cognitive control dimension corresponds in general terms to the cognitively demanding (high control) -- cognitively undemanding dimension in Figure II:2 while the extent of analyzed knowledge required for task completion represents a similar dimension to the context-embedded/context-reduced continuum. The emphases and envisaged application of the two frameworks are different and they draw on different bodies of research literature; consequently, the convergence of their underlying dimensions is encouraging and adds weight to the significance of their basic theoretical assumptions.

The dimension of the frameworks outlined in Figures II:2 and II:3 that was incorporated into our theoretical model was the horizontal dimension of context-embedded/context-reduced or low analyzed knowledge/high analyzed knowledge. The basic model is outlined in Figure II:4.

Initially, as outlined in the Year 1 Report, we had wanted to test a four-method, three-trait model which would have comprised 12 cells and required 24 measures of different components of proficiency to be developed. However, this paradigm proved unworkable from a practical point of view and the model was consequently reduced to three methods and three traits. The original model had involved both productive and receptive measures within both context-embedded and context-reduced dimensions. We retained this distinction for the context-reduced dimension (through multiple-choice and written production tasks) but not for the context-embedded dimension (only oral production tasks were used).

The rationale for this choice involved both practical and theoretical considerations. Theoretically, previous studies among French immersion students suggested that there is relatively less variance in aural receptive (e.g. listening comprehension) skills than in other aspects of proficiency. Variance in listening comprehension would appear more related to lexical knowledge than to more specific aspects of grammatical, discourse or sociolinguistic proficiencies. Also, from a practical perspective, a truly context-embedded measure would require individual face-to-face assessment and thus exacerbate an already difficult practical problem of testing time.

The measures which were developed in the context of the basic model in Figure II:4 have some limitations in respect to their fit to the theoretical constructs; specifically, although the context-embedded measures are certainly more 'embedded' than either the multiple-choice or written composition tasks, they are considerably less embedded than language use in a non-contrived face-to-face conversation (see, however, Appendix G). The necessity to measure grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic proficiencies independently of each other required us to generate specific contexts or tasks in the interview where students would be obliged to manifest these proficiencies. Although these tasks are supported by contextual cues to the extent that these could be built in, language use in these tasks only partially represents the notion of context-embeddedness. Both multiple-choice and written compositions, on the other hand, appear to conform closely to the context-reduced construct.

III PROFICIENCY STUDIES

Note that this chapter should be read in conjunction with pages 5-33 of the Year 1 Report.

Objectives

The focus and ultimate goal of all studies carried out within the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project is the improvement of educational practices as they relate to second language learning and teaching. Because so much of school practice relates to the learning and teaching of grammatical aspects of the target language, it was considered essential to broaden the scope of the typical educational definition of language proficiency to incorporate sociolinguistic and discourse aspects, and to propose that context-embedded and context-reduced tasks will make differential demands on the learner.

The primary objective of the large-scale proficiency study undertaken in the context of this Project is to determine the extent to which our theoretically hypothesized traits, representing key components of language proficiency, are empirically distinguishable. The initial hypothesis, then, is that sociolinguistic, discourse, and grammatical competence will emerge as distinct components of proficiency which may be differentially manifested in context-reduced tasks as opposed to more context-embedded tasks.

Secondary objectives include the development of a set of exemplary test items, as well as a set of scoring scales and procedures that will measure the theoretically hypothesized traits. Given the analyses of the data from a 'measurement' perspective (see for example, pages 22-33 of the Year 1 Report, and the Generalizability Studies reported below), test items and/or scales can be used, or modified for use, in further studies of bilingual proficiency, as has already been done in the Portuguese study (see Chapter V).

A final objective of the large-scale proficiency study is the description of the target language performance of the students tested (grade 6 French immersion students) relative to native speakers of the target language. Two papers focussing on the performance of the students are being written over the summer by Swain for two invited plenary lectures: one to be given at the Xth University of Michigan Conference on Applied Linguistics at Ann Arbor in October; the other to be given at the Second Language Research Forum at the University of Southern California in November.

Tests and Scoring Procedures

During the first year of the Project, nine tests were developed to fill the different cells of the matrix of traits and methods (see Figure III:1). Copies of these tests are appended to the Year 1 Report. Here the focus is on the procedures that were used to score the six open-ended tests of oral and written production across the three traits: grammatical competence, discourse competence, and sociolinguistic competence. The tests themselves are described on pages 9-16 of the Year 1 Report.

(a) Grammatical Competence

Grammatical competence was operationalized in the context of this study as rules of morphology and syntax, with a major emphasis on verbs and prepositions.

Grammatical written production (Cell 3,1)

Grammatical scoring of compositions was the first scoring of open-ended tests to take place. It was carried out during the summer and fall of 1982 (see Table III:1). Four Project staff members (including two native speakers of French and two fluent non-native speakers) standardized scoring criteria on an initial sample of about 25 compositions. One scorer, a linguist and native speaker of French, closely supervised the other three and led discussion and clarification of what was to be scored under each category. Each of the four then scored compositions independently.

There were two 15-minute compositions written by the grade 6 immersion students in the half-hour session devoted to cell 3,1 of the matrix (see Figure III:1): a narrative about the rescue of a kitten from a tree (Au secours!) and a letter of request to borrow a bicycle (La bicyclette) (see Year 1 Report, pages B46-B48). Two parallel 15-minute compositions, a narrative about a bank robbery (Aux voleurs!), and a letter requesting permission to keep a dog in an apartment (Le chien), were produced in fulfilment of cell 3,2 (see Year 1 Report, pages B49-B51). All four compositions were scored for grammatical proficiency.

Grammatical errors were tallied for each of four categories: syntactic errors, preposition errors, non-homophonous verb errors, and homophonous verb errors.

The syntactic error category consisted of errors of permutation (word order), substitution, omission, and addition. Verb and preposition errors were not included, being tallied in separate categories, nor were errors in subject pronouns, since these were scored under discourse competence as relevant to cohesion. Substitution errors included not only single words and syntactic elements but any substitution of a ready-made expression from English for one in French (e.g. L'homme est dans ses 40's from 'The man is in his 40's'.). This kind of substitution counted as a single error. An accuracy rate for syntax was arrived at for each composition by subtracting syntactic errors from the total number of finite verbs produced, and dividing the product by the number of finite verbs.

This formula,

$$\frac{\text{No. of finite verbs - syntax errors}}{\text{No. of finite verbs}}$$

which gave an index of syntactic accuracy per finite clause, was considered a more informative measure of proficiency than a simple tally of errors, since it took into account the varying length of compositions.

Preposition errors were deemed to consist of those of substitution (e.g. dans l'été instead of pendant l'été), omission, addition, and amalgamation (e.g. *à le instead of au). Complex prepositions such as au dessus de, en haut de were counted as single prepositions. Not included in this category were partitive articles (e.g. ... et donne lui du lait) or fixed adverbial locutions such as en haut, en bas. In addition to preposition errors, the total number of obligatory contexts for prepositions was tallied as a base for estimating the accuracy rate of prepositions in each composition.

The non-homophonous verb error category consisted of all the within-sentence verb inflection errors that were incorrectly written and that would also sound inaccurate if said aloud. This included the use of the wrong auxiliary (ils ont allés instead of ils sont allés), the use of the wrong tense within the sentence (Deux policiers ont pensé qu'il peux les attraper...), incorrect number or person agreement (trois chiens a couru instead of trois chiens ont couru, je va instead of je vais), and anglicized verb forms (attack rather than attaque). Minor spelling errors in the verb stem (e.g. utuliser for utiliser) were not counted as verb errors.

Homophonous verb errors consisted of spelling errors in verb inflections that if spoken aloud would sound correct (e.g. les chiens pouvait pas attrapé rather than les chiens pouvaient pas attraper). The substitution of the spelling -ais or -ait for -é or -er, or vice versa, was considered to be a homophonous verb error. In other words, it was assumed that these inflections would have the same pronunciation for immersion students, if spoken aloud (see e.g. Harley and Swain, 1978; Harley, 1982).

It should be stressed that only verb errors in obligatory within-sentence contexts were deemed to constitute grammatical errors. Sequence of tenses across sentences was considered a discourse phenomenon. Also tallied in addition to verb errors was the total number of verb forms produced in each composition, in order to provide a base for assessing the accuracy rate of verbs. In this tally, an auxiliary and verb form (e.g. va regarder, ont joué) were counted as two verb forms.

Aside from the error scores for syntax, prepositions, and verbs detailed above, the range of different prepositions (apart from à and de) used in each composition was calculated as a measure of grammatical sophistication.

Following grammatical scoring of the compositions, an inter-rater reliability check was carried out. Rater 3, one of the fluent non-native speakers of French, rescored a total of 40 compositions, representing ten compositions scored by each of the original raters. As Table III:2 shows, reliabilities were generally good, with the exception of non-homophonous verb errors, where it appeared that there were some discrepancies between the scores assigned by rater 3 and by other raters. As a result all compositions scored by rater 3 were rescored for this category by rater 4 (a native speaker of French).

Grammatical oral production (Cell 1,1)

Questions in this oral communicative interview (see Year 1 Report, pages B9-B11) were designed to elicit a range of verb forms and prepositions in French, as well as responses that were sufficiently elaborated to score for syntactic accuracy. The context of the interview questions (e.g. favourite pastimes, trips taken) was at the same time designed to focus the subject's attention on communication rather than on the L2 code. Grammatical scoring, then, was based on the student's ability to use certain grammatical forms accurately in the context of particular questions.

The grammatical scoring of the 69 oral interviews with immersion students was carried out in January and February 1983 by two native French-speaking members of the Project staff (raters 5 and 6). The interviews with ten native speakers were scored at a later date. Procedures for scoring were first worked out in relation to a subset of six tapes that were scored by both raters. Each rater then scored half the tapes independently. The raters proceeded by first transcribing the relevant responses to the questions to be rated, and then assigning scores to the transcribed data.

The ability to use verb forms accurately was assessed with reference to interview questions 10, 15, 23, and 30-34. These questions were designed to elicit the use of the future (Question 10), the imparfait (Question 15), the conditionnel (Question 23), and the passé composé (Questions 30-34):

Question 10: Qu'est-ce que tu feras ce soir après l'école? Et puis qu'est-ce que tu feras ensuite? Et ensuite ... (jusqu'à ce que l'élève se couche.)

Question 15: Qu'est-ce qu'elle/il faisait ta mère/ton père quand tu es parti(e) pour l'école ce matin?

Question 23: Dis-moi, pour changer, qu'est-ce que tu ferais si tu avais beaucoup d'argent? Si tu gagnais la loterie par exemple?

Questions 30-34: Dis-moi, as-tu déjà eu un accident?
Qu'est-ce qui s'est passé?
As-tu déjà fait un mauvais rêve?
Qu'est-ce qui s'est passé?

Similar questions had successfully elicited the anticipated verb forms from native speakers in grades 1 and 10 in a previous study (Harley 1982).

An accuracy rate for verbs was established by summing the number of errors in contexts for the future, imparfait, conditionnel, and passé composé and subtracting this total from the number of obligatory contexts produced for such forms; this figure was then divided by the number of obligatory contexts, i.e.:

$$\frac{\text{No. of obligatory contexts - verb errors}}{\text{No. of obligatory contexts}}$$

In the case of Questions 30-34, which were scored for use of the passé composé, scoring was based on the first substantial narrative (i.e. preferably five finite clauses or longer) that was produced by the student. Where there were no obligatory contexts produced for use of a particular form in response to the relevant question, the student was considered to have missing data for that question. Some typical verb errors in response to the questions were as follows:

Question 10: *Juste lire ou regarder la T.V.*
(instead of *Je vais juste lire* ...)

Question 15: *Il regarde la télévision*
(instead of *Il regardait* ...)

Question 23: *Je vais mi un peu dans ma banque*
(instead of *Je mettrais* ...)

Questions 30-34: *Elle faire une faute*
(instead of *elle a fait* ...)

Accuracy in the use of *prepositions* was assessed in relation to questions 20-22:

Question 20: Est-ce que tu as ta chambre à toi?
Question 21: Pourrais-tu me la décrire? Comment l'as tu décorée? ... Et sur les murs?

Question 22: Où se trouvent tes meubles? (Comment ils sont placés dans ta chambre?)

In describing their rooms, students regularly produced prepositions in explaining the relative position of objects in the room.

An accuracy rate for prepositions was arrived at for each student by subtracting the number of preposition errors from the number of obligatory contexts for prepositions, and dividing this figure by the number of obligatory contexts for prepositions, i.e.:

$$\frac{\text{No. of obligatory contexts - preposition errors}}{\text{No. of obligatory contexts}}$$

Preposition errors consisted of substitutions (e.g. la fenêtre *sur* le mur), errors of amalgamation, omission, and addition. Complex prepositions such as *à côté de* were counted as single prepositions. Not included as prepositions were partitive articles and fixed adverbial locutions.

Syntactic accuracy was evaluated with reference to questions 25-28:

Question 25: Est-ce que tu as déjà voyagé (au Canada)? (Sinon) En Ontario?

Question 26: Où es-tu allé? Peux-tu m'en parler?

Question 27a: Quel endroit as-tu aimé le plus?

Question 27b: Qu'est-ce que tu as fait là-bas?

Question 28: Qu'est-ce que tu as vu d'intéressant là-bas?

The rate of accuracy was calculated by subtracting syntactic errors from the number of finite verbs produced in the context of questions 25-28, and dividing the difference by the number of finite verbs, i.e.:

$$\frac{\text{No. of finite verbs - no. of syntax errors}}{\text{No. of finite verbs}}$$

If less than five finite verbs were produced by a student in response to these questions, then the data scored for the passé composé (i.e. from Questions 30-34) were substituted for the responses to Questions 25-28 in order to provide a stable base for the assessment of syntactic accuracy. Errors of syntax included those of word order (e.g. un chose avec les automobiles vieilles instead of vieilles automobiles), omission (il avait beaucoup de montagnes instead of il y avait beaucoup de montagnes), and addition (J'ai juste allé en l'Europe instead of en Europe). Syntactic errors involving verbs and prepositions were not included, these categories having already been scored for. Errors in subject pronouns were also ignored since these were considered of primary relevance to discourse.

In addition to the above scores, the responses to Questions 19-22 of the grammatical interviews were rated globally for accent. (Each rater scored all 69 interviews.) The score for accent was not included as part of the grammatical score for the purpose of testing the model of proficiency, given the current working definition of grammatical competence as pertaining to syntax and morphology. The score for accent has been retained, however, for future more detailed analyses of the relationships between different aspects of L2 proficiency.

Accent ratings were given on a four-point scale, using as a general guideline the descriptions provided for levels 1-4 (1 = relatively low) of the United States Foreign Service Institute (FSI) oral interview test (see Sollenberger 1978). Special attention was paid to features such as /r/, /y/ (as in pupitre), /e/ (as in élève), nasal vowels, aspiration, and intonation.

An inter-rater reliability check was carried out early in the grammatical scoring of the interviews. This revealed some discrepancy between the raters with respect to the contexts selected for scoring of syntax and the criteria used for scoring prepositions. Following discussion of these discrepancies, each interviewer independently rescored the syntax and preposition categories in conformity with the criteria outlined above, and continued with the scoring. Final reliabilities for the three grammatical categories, including verbs, are displayed in Table III:3. In addition, an inter-rater reliability coefficient of .69 was obtained for the scoring of accent, based on all 69 interviews scored by both raters.

(b) **Discourse Competence**

The discourse trait was defined as the ability to use (produce and recognize) coherent and cohesive text, whether written or oral.

Discourse written production (Cell 3,2)

The four compositions that were scored for grammaticality were also designed as parallel tasks for the scoring of discourse competence. In each of the Cells 3,1 and 3,2, there was one composition involving narrative discourse (Au secours! and Aux voleurs!) and another involving suasion (La bicyclette and Le chien).

In November and December 1982, two native French speakers (raters 5 and 6) scored the four compositions written by each of the 69 immersion students and ten native speakers who had also been orally tested. Ten compositions from the non-oral sample were first scored by both raters in order to familiarize them with the discourse categories to be used in the detailed scoring.

For each composition, six detailed discourse scores and one global discourse score were given. Detailed scoring was completed first, using the following six categories: (1) basic task fulfilment, (2) identification of characters, objects, and locations, (3) time orientation, (4) anaphora, (5) logical connection, and (6) punctuation. For each of these categories a five-point rating scale was used as follows:

0 0.5 1 1.5 2

Low High

1. Basic task fulfilment. This category involved an assessment of how well each composition fulfilled the basic semantic requirements of the discourse task assigned. To qualify as narratives, for example, the compositions *Aux voleurs!* and *Au secours!* needed to include a series of events. To qualify as suasion, the letters about the dog and the bicycle had to contain an exhortation to the addressee together with at least one supporting argument. In addition, each narrative was considered to require the inclusion of certain events as outlined in the instructions to the composition (see Year 1 Report, pages B48 and B51): in *Aux voleurs!* a bank robbery had to take place, and in *Au secours!* the cat needed to be rescued from a tree.

2. Identification of characters, objects, and locations. Under this category, an assessment was made of whether the composition writer identified new characters, objects, and locations sufficiently, or whether too much prior knowledge on the part of

the reader was assumed. Thus all new entities had to be marked as new information (e.g. with a non-specific noun phrase), or had to be clearly related to other entities already introduced. A typical error in the letter-writing tasks, for example, was for writers to fail to identify themselves and the situation which provided the rationale for the letter.

3. Time orientation. This category involved a judgment as to how adequately events or situations were located in time, and, where relevant, whether the temporal relationship between events or situations was clear. Breakdowns in temporal coherence could occur for a variety of reasons: inaccurate use, or lack of use, of temporal conjunctions, time adverbials, or subordinators; inconsistent sequence of tenses and/or aspect across sentences. The following excerpts from two compositions exemplify some of these problems:

(a) Trois bandits sont entrés. Maintenant, ils ont demandé pour l'argent.

(b) Quand les pompiers arriva, il voyait 30 person endesut l'arbre et il avait mes une échelle, montés et attrape le chat.

4. Anaphora. Once entities such as characters, objects, and locations have been introduced in a text, further 'anaphoric' references to these entities need to be clear and accurate in order to maintain the coherence of a text. In assessing this category, the raters took account of, for example, subject pronouns, articles, possessive adjectives, and the lexical relatedness of noun phrases.

5. Logical connection. This category concerned the logical relationship between segments of the text, whether there were nonsequiturs, semantically obscure or fragmentary incidents, or logically missing steps in an argument or sequence of events. A breakdown of this kind is exemplified in the following excerpt:

> Les polices on etait partout. Il(s) disaient à les voleurs de venir dehors avec les mains en l'air. Apres deux heures ils on échaper avec l'argent.

6. Punctuation. In assessing the use of punctuation, the raters took account of the extent to which the punctuation clarified the information structure of the text by indicating boundaries of information units, and whether lack of punctuation necessitated the re-reading of a passage in order to determine such boundaries.

Following the detailed scoring, the same two raters independently assigned a global discourse score to all of the compositions. Procedures for global scoring consisted of the requirement that compositions be first sorted into three categories: below average, average, and above average. The scorers were then asked to rate the compositions as relatively high or low within each of these three categories. This resulted in a six-point scale as follows:

$$\underbrace{1 \qquad 2}_{\text{below average}} \qquad \underbrace{3 \qquad 4}_{\text{average}} \qquad \underbrace{5 \qquad 6}_{\text{above average}}$$

The criteria for assigning a global score were not closely specified. The scorers were simply asked to keep in mind the general criterion of coherent discourse.

Since the discourse scores consisted of ratings rather than tallies as in the grammatical scoring, it was considered advisable to maintain a close check on inter-rater reliabilities throughout the scoring process. Table III:4 shows the results of four reliability checks, the first of which took place after the initial practice scoring. One of the detailed categories, logical connection, proved to have rather low inter-rater reliability, as did the anaphora category on occasion 3. Good reliabilities were obtained for other detailed scores, and when all the detailed scores were summed for each composition, the resulting total scores were highly reliable. Following each reliability check, the raters met to discuss any problems they were experiencing before carrying on with their scoring. For the final global scores, inter-rater reliability was also high (see Table III:5).

Discourse oral production (Cell 1,2)

In the Year 1 Report, this test is described on page 11 and the full set of interview questions is reproduced on pages B12-B13. Two tasks in the interview were scored for discourse by raters 5 and 6, each of whom rated half the interviews. The raters, who carried out this scoring in March-April 1983, proceeded by first transcribing those portions of the interviews that were to be scored. Criteria for scoring were standardized on a subset of six tapes initially scored by both raters.

The first task to be scored in the interview was the retelling of a movie 'La taupe et le bulldozer' that had been seen in class the previous day. The relevant interview questions were as follows:

Question 1: Hier, tu as vu le film: "La taupe et le bulldozer". Oui! Crois-tu que tu peux me raconter l'histoire de ce film? Moi, je n'ai pas vu le film. Il y a quelques dessins qui vont t'aider à t'en rappeler... Bien, peux-tu me raconter l'histoire maintenant?

Question 2: Comment est-ce que l'histoire finit? (si la fin n'a pas été racontée)

The second task to be scored was a role-playing task in which the student, taking the role of the mole in the movie, was required to convince some imaginary addressees (two bulldozers) not to carry out an action that would have been harmful to the mole: namely, the straightening of the road and consequent obliteration of the mole's garden. The following question was used to elicit this role-play:

Question 4: Maintenant, imagine que le bulldozer revienne avec un ami, un peu plus tard. Ils veulent rendre la route droite et l'élargir (montrer la photo). Imagine que c'est toi la taupe, et essaye de convaincre les bulldozers de ne pas toucher à la route (ne pas la changer).
O.K. C'est toi la taupe et tu parles à ces bulldozers. Pense à tous les arguments possibles pour qu'ils ne changent pas la route.

Scoring of the story-retelling task was based on four categories: (1) Setting the scene, (2) Identification, (3) Logical sequence of events, and (4) Time orientation. Each of these categories was scored on a scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high). A global rating was then assigned to each story based on a subjective weighting of these four scores.

1. Setting the scene. Under this category, the student's establishment of the atmosphere of the story was assessed. This was important for the coherence of the story, in that it was the idyllic habitat and lifestyle of the mole, shown in the opening scenes of the movie, that were at risk throughout the story. The student, then, was assessed for the attention that was given to (a) the initial idyllic state, (b) the fear and urgency engendered by the approaching bulldozers, and (c) the ultimate return to a peaceful state of affairs.

2. Identification. The student was rated for the explicitness and clarity with which key characters, objects, and locations were introduced into the narrative. Note that although the student had been given a set of pictures as an aid to memory, the instruction had been to 'tell the story' and not to 'describe the pictures'. At the same time, the student had been given to understand that the interviewer had not seen the movie. It was therefore incumbent on the student to name the characters, objects, etc.

3. Logical sequence of events. Under this category, a rating was given for the logical coherence with which the events of the story were narrated. Thus it was important to explain how the mole knew that the bulldozers were coming and would endanger his garden, and what the various steps were that the mole took to insure the safety of his property.

4. Time orientation. A rating was given for the coherent use of verb tenses, temporal conjunctions, adverbials, and other elements that clarified the temporal relationship between the events of the story.

Question 4 of the interview involving the role-play was scored on a scale of 1 (low) to 3 (high) for the extent to which logical arguments were presented to support the mole's case that the road should not be straightened.

The inter-rater reliabilities based on two reliability checks made on a total of 20 interviews during the scoring of the interviews are presented in Table III:6. As these figures show, the scores were highly reliable.

(c) Sociolinguistic Competence

Sociolinguistic competence, for the purposes of the model of language proficiency, is defined as the ability to produce and recognize socially appropriate language in context.

Sociolinguistic written production (Cell 3,3)

The tasks assigned for the assessment of written productive sociolinguistic competence are outlined in the Year 1 Report, pages 15-16, and a copy of the test is provided in Appendix B to that report (pages B53-B57).

In addition to the three tasks assigned in the context of Cell 3,3 (a letter and two notes), the letter of request to borrow a bicycle assigned in the context of grammatical competence (Cell 3,1) was also rated for sociolinguistic appropriateness. Four tasks were thus assessed from a sociolinguistic perspective -- two letters and two notes.

The sociolinguistic written production tasks focus on two extremes of directive. In the letters, the writer takes the role of a grade 6 student writing a polite, formal request letter asking a favour of a higher status unfamiliar adult; in the notes, the writer plays the role of a familiar adult (mother, teacher) imposing authority by means of a brief informal note to get action from the (lower status) grade 6 student who is at fault in some way (has left room untidy, homework undone).

In the first case (the request letters) we would expect to find various markers indicating mitigation of the directive. In the second case (the notes) we would expect little, if any, mitigation of the directive. The scoring procedures for the sociolinguistic test are based on these expectations, and supported by data from 23 native speakers at the grade 6 level.

Scoring was designed to capture the students' ability to apply formal sociolinguistic markers of politeness that were appropriate in the context of the letters, and to abstain from using such markers in the context of the notes. The purpose was to arrive at a set of sociolinguistic 'difference scores' for each student, which would represent the extent to which the student's use of formal markers was greater in the context of the letters than it was in the notes. A 'good' sociolinguistic score was thus a relatively high difference score, and a 'poor' sociolinguistic score was a relatively low difference score.

The sociolinguistic written production tasks were assessed in December 1982 by raters 5 and 6, who awarded scores on each task according to the presence or absence of the following formal markers of politeness: (1) conditional verb forms, (2) modal verbs and/or phrases, (3) direct or indirect questions, (4) politeness expressions, (5) formal vocabulary, (6) polite second person pronoun or possessive forms, (7) formal closings. Such markers were frequently produced by 23 grade 6 native speakers in the context of the letters, while few such markers appeared in the notes that they wrote.

1. Conditional verb forms. The use of the conditional is one way of mitigating a polite request in French. Among the native-speaker group, for example, expressions such as j'aimerais and pourriez-vous were frequently used in the request letters, but only j'aimerais occasionally occurred in the notes. The presence of one or more conditional verb forms (disregarding homophonous verb errors and errors of person) was scored as 2 and their absence as 1.

2. Modal verb and/or phrase. The native speakers often used modality in the form of the verbs pouvoir (indicating capability or possibility), vouloir, and expressions such as être capable de or si c'est possible to add politeness to their formal letters of request. The use of one or more of these markers was scored as 2 and their absence as 1. If pouvoir was used in the sense of permission, however, it was not considered to be a formal marker of politeness. The use of veuillez was considered separately from other forms of vouloir as a politeness marker under category 4.

3. Direct or indirect questions. The phrasing of a request as a direct or indirect question is clearly more polite than to issue a directive by way of an imperative. In requesting information on pollution, for example, in the letter addressed to Environment Canada, the native speakers sometimes used direct questions such as Est-ce que vous avez des photos...? or indirect questions such as J'aimerais savoir si vous avez des photos...? The use of such questions in a composition was rated as 2 and their absence as 1. Questions were generally absent from the notes produced by the native speakers.

4. Polite expressions. This category consisted of idiomatic politeness markers such as s'il vous plaît, veuillez, ayez l'obligeance de, si vous voulez bien, which were used by the native speakers relatively frequently in their formal request letters, and scarcely represented in the notes. (S'il vous plaît was occasionally used in a note.) The presence of one or more such markers was scored as 2 and their absence as 1.

5. Formal vocabulary. The use of formal written, rather than spoken, vocabulary appropriate in the formal letters was given a rating of 2, and the absence of such vocabulary, a rating of 1. Examples from the request letters of the native speakers are: recevoir, obtenir, me faire parvenir, documentation, renseignements.

6. Formal second person pronoun or possessive forms. The use of vous, votre and vos was a highly consistent marker of formality in the request letters of the native speakers that they did not use in the notes from the teacher and mother, where tu, ton,

ta, tes were used instead. Since second person forms were likely to occur quite often in all the tasks, it was decided to allow for partially appropriate use among the immersion students by means of a three-point scoring scheme, allowing 3 for consistent use of vous, etc., 2 for mixed use of vous/tu etc., and 1 for non-use of vous forms.

7. Formal closings. Since the letter of request to borrow a bicycle was already provided with an appropriate opening (Cher monsieur,), openings could not be scored in the context of the sociolinguistic written production test. Closings, however, were needed, and a list was made of the closings used by the grade 6 native speakers in the context of their request letters. Some of these closings (e.g. Merci à l'avance, Bien à vous, Merci de votre collaboration) were considered to be formal by adult standards and were scored as 3 on a three-point scale. Others (e.g. Merci beaucoup, Merci, sincèrement) were rated as 2 as moderately formal, and other informal closings which occurred only in notes (e.g. A tantôt, Salut, Je t'aime) were rated as 1.

Following detailed independent scoring of the sociolinguistic written production tasks by the two raters based on the above seven categories, an inter-rater reliability check was performed on the compositions. There was 100 per cent agreement between the raters on eight native speakers that were scored by both raters on one letter and one note, and an overall .96 level of agreement on 24 immersion students who were similarly scored by both raters.

Sociolinguistic oral production (Cell 1,3)

This test, involving a set of slides representing different social situations, is described in the Year 1 Report (pages 12, 14, 15 and B14-B15). Scoring of the test, which took place in September 1982, was carried out by two native French-speaking Project staff members. As in the sociolinguistic written production test described above, the objective was to determine the extent to which students could vary their language use appropriately in response to the social demands of the different situations: i.e. their ability to use linguistic markers of formal register in formal situations, and to refrain from using them in informal situations. Students were given points for the presence of linguistic markers of formal register when they made requests, suggestions, and complaints to the different addressees represented in the slides. For each test item, a maximum formality score of 6 was given, depending on whether the student's response to a particular slide contained the following six kinds of formal features: (1) the use of an initial politeness marker such as pardon or madame in the utterance opening; (2) use of vous as a form of address (together with votre, vos)[2]; (3) use of question forms with est-ce que ... or inversion; (4) use of the conditional verb form; (5) the inclusion of formal vocabulary and/or the use of additional explanatory information; and (6) concluding politeness markers (e.g. s'il vous plaît). Given that different slides represented different levels of formality (high, medium, and low), an 'ideal' formality score for each level would be 6 (high), 3 (medium), and 0 (low).

Having agreed on the criteria to be used in scoring, the two raters proceeded to score independently. No inter-rater reliability checks were carried out, since the criteria were considered sufficiently objective for this to be unnecessary.

Analysis of Component Scores and Overall Scores for Each Cell

The previous section has described how the scoring procedures resulted in a number of component scores for each test. This scoring breakdown has theoretical interest in that it pinpoints which aspects of language competence are being assessed in each test, and it has the practical advantage of allowing scorers to concentrate successively on particular, well-defined features of the data. However, the competence model primarily concerns traits defined at a more general level, and the component scores of each test were therefore combined in order to construct a single measure for each trait-method cell.

In general, there were four considerations in combining component scores within a cell. First, as far as possible the 'a priori' validity of the measures was preserved. That is, the component scores were designed on both theoretical and intuitive grounds to measure a number of roughly equally important sub-traits, which taken together would constitute the general trait in question. We therefore had an initial bias to reflect this situation by constructing the total score as the simple mean of the component scores, each weighted equally.

Second, adequate reliability of the combined measure was important, both in its own right and in order to have some chance of finding a clear pattern in the subsequent factor analysis. Therefore, if the reliability of the simple mean was too low, steps were taken to improve it by making a different combination.

Third, correlations among the component scores were considered on the grounds that if component scores were measuring different aspects of a single overall trait, they should be highly correlated. However, as the results will show, these correlations were often quite low. Such low correlations can be understood by supposing that the component scores are not sub-traits in the sense of measuring the same factor in different ways, but are sub-traits in the sense of possibly independent factors combining to create a superordinate factor -- in the same way that the traits themselves, at a higher level, may be uncorrelated, and yet combine to determine language competence. Because there was no strong theoretical reason for supposing that the component scores of a cell should necessarily be correlated, low correlations were not decisive in determining the construction of the overall cell score. However, it should be realized that these low correlations exist, and at a later stage of the analysis we tried removing those few component scores that correlated negatively with other component scores in the same cell. Total scores with these components removed are therefore presented in this section, along with the totals with all components included.

Fourth, the relative performance levels of native speakers and immersion students on each component were considered. For some component scores there was good reason to expect that a valid measure would show large differences between native speakers and immersion students; for other scores there was no compelling reason to expect or not to expect such a difference. The performance levels were compared for all components, and these comparisons give some insight into the nature of the final scores.

The data in the following section are based on the sample of 69 immersion students who received the entire battery of oral production, multiple-choice, and written production tests. When comparisons with native speakers are made, the native-speaking sample consists of ten students who likewise received the entire test battery. Information concerning the methodology of the study is provided in the Year I Report, pages 16 - 19.

Grammatical Oral Production

The level of performance of native speakers and immersion students was compared on the three component scores -- syntax, prepositions, and verbs -- and on a total score (Table III:7 and Figure III:2a). The component scores were calculated as the percentage of uses of the given type (syntax, preposition, or verb) that were correct. The total score was calculated by adding the number of correct uses of each type and dividing by total number of uses (see above section on scoring for more details). Native-speaker performance was near ceiling in every test, and at 100 per cent in prepositions. Immersion student performance showed a good range in every component, with mean scores between 57 per cent and 81 per cent. The performance of native speakers was significantly higher than that of immersion students on every score, as indicated by t-tests.

The frequency distributions of the component scores in the immersion group showed a small amount of negative skew. However, the total score distribution was nearly symmetrical and no correction for skewness was deemed necessary.

Since only a single score for each measure in this cell was available from each student, a reliability estimate was not possible. The correlations among component scores were essentially zero (Table III:8). The preposition score even correlated negatively with the other two scores, although not significantly so. These low correlations may indicate that the reliability of this test is low, since one would expect these component scores to correlate at least moderately if the test were highly reliable (cf. grammatical written production scores).

Grammatical Multiple Choice

A detailed analysis of performance on this test was presented in the Year 1 Report, pages 23-26. Summary statistics for the 69 immersion students and ten native speakers in the present samples may be found in Table III:9.

Grammatical Written Production

Native speakers and immersion students were compared on each of four component scores (syntax, prepositions, absence of non-homophonous verb errors, and absence of homophonous verb errors) and on a total score, for each of four compositions (two letters and two narratives). The component scores were calculated as the percentage of correct use of each type (see section on scoring), and the total score as the percentage of uses of all types that were correct. Table III:10 and Figure III:3 show the level of performance for each score on each topic. Native speakers normally perform better than immersion students and nearly at ceiling on all measures, with the notable exception of the category 'absence of homophonous verb errors'.

Average scores for each component and a single total score that represents a student's overall performance in grammatical written production were made by averaging across the four writing topics. Table III:11 and Figure III:2b show these scores. Native-speaker performance levels are shown by t-tests to be significantly higher than those for the immersion group for all scores except 'absence of homophonous verb errors'.

The reliabilities of component and total scores were examined by means of correlations between the two replications of each composition type -- narrative and letter (Table III:12). The correlations for prepositions and 'absence of non-homophonous verb errors' are rather low, especially in the case of letters but for the other component scores and for the total they are moderate. An estimate of the reliability of the overall cell score was obtained as follows: the correlation was found between the mean score of one letter and narrative, and the mean score of the other letter and narrative. Each of these means may be likened to a 'split-half' of the overall cell score, which is the average of both letters and both narratives. The correlation between the means was .45. The Spearman-Brown formula then results in an estimated reliability of .62 for the overall cell score. Although not exceptionally high, this was judged to be an adequate level of reliability.

The intercorrelations among the component scores, averaged across all four compositions, are given in Table III:13. They are generally moderate.

Discourse Oral Production

The immersion students were compared with native speakers on each component of the discourse oral production test (scene setting, identification of characters, logical sequence, time orientation, and argument), as well as on a total and a global score (Table III:14 and Figure III:2c).

The total score was the arithmetic mean of the five component scores, while the original global score was a subjectively weighted average of the first four component scores, made by the raters (see section on scoring). In order to include the information from the fifth component in the global score, the fifth score (argument) was averaged into the original global score to form a new global score. Native speakers generally received higher scores than immersion students, but the difference between group means was significant only in the case of one of the five components: time orientation. Also, native speakers did not perform near ceiling except on time orientation. The groups did differ significantly on both the total and the global scores, but the size of the difference was not large.

There was an adequate range of scores by the immersion group on each measure, and the frequency distributions were acceptable.

There is no direct evidence on the reliability of these measures, since each subject was tested only once. Correlations among the component scores were moderately positive in general (Table III:15). There was a high correlation between identification and logic, probably due to the fact that raters found stories less coherent if characters, objects, places, etc. were not adequately identified. The total and the new global score were highly correlated (r =.92), suggesting that the raters' subjective weighting of the component scores did not differ much from a straight arithmetic average. Consistent with this is the fact that the rank order of importance of each component score to the overall score, as measured by the size of its correlation with the overall score, is identical for both the total and global scores. Logic, for example, is the most important, and time orientation the least.

Discourse Multiple Choice

A detailed analysis of performance on this test was presented in the Year 1 Report, pages 24 to 29. Summary statistics for the 69 immersion students and ten native speakers may be found in Table III:9.

Discourse Written Production

The relative performance of native speakers and immersion students on each component score for each composition topic is shown in Table III:16 and Figure III:4. There are six component scores: basic task fulfilment, identification of characters, time sequence, anaphora, logical coherence, and punctuation. In addition, a total score was constructed as the arithmetic mean of the six component scores, and raters gave each student a global score which reflected their intuitive rating and integration of all six component measures. There were four composition topics (the same as for grammatical written production): two letters and two narratives. There is little difference between native speakers and immersion students on most of the component measures, and for punctuation, the native speakers' performance is lower than that of immersion students. These discourse measures, in general, seem to be equally hard for first and second language learners.

A mean score over all four composition topics was calculated for each component measure and for the total and global scores (Table III:17 and Figure III:2d). The only component score in which there is a significant difference between native speakers and immersion students is punctuation, in which the native speakers perform worse, as has already been noted. There is no significant difference in the total score, but there is a significant difference in the global score. There would seem to be two possible interpretations for this difference between the global and the total score: It may indicate that the raters were able to detect qualitative differences in the discourse performance of native speakers and immersion students that were not captured in the quantitative component scores, or it may be that the raters did not stay strictly within the bounds of discourse competence in making their global ratings. For example, if they had inadvertently attended to grammatical competence, which is clearly better in the native-speaking sample, they may have rated the native speakers better for the wrong reason. The purpose of obtaining a qualitative rating, however, was to allow features of discourse to be picked out that were not captured by the objective total score and this is likely to be what happened.

The relative reliability of each component score was examined by correlating the scores from the two narratives, and those from the two letters (Table III:18). Differences between the value of the correlation for letters and for narratives can be interpreted as reflecting differences in importance of a particular measure in a particular setting. For example, anaphora is more important in the narrative setting, and will normally be used to refer back to characters, places, and events more often. Time sequence and logic are similar to anaphora in this regard. Identification was more important in the letter, presumably because it is less obvious to the writer that the situation and the writer must be identified to the reader before the substance of the message is relayed. Punctuation was more important in the letter, perhaps because it is less familiar than the punctuation needed for narrative, and it is just being learned by children at this age.

Although the correlations of some of the component scores are quite low, the correlation of the total and global score (Table III:18) is respectable. The total scores for one letter and one narrative were averaged together, and correlated with the mean of the total scores from the other letter and other narrative. This correlation was .55, which leads to an estimated reliability for the mean of the four compositions of .71 (by the Spearman-Brown formula). Similar treatment of the global score leads to an estimated reliability of .82. These figures indicate that the reliability of the overall score for the composition discourse cell, whether a total score or a global score, is quite high. Correlations among the component scores, each score calculated as the subject's mean over all four compositions, are presented in Table III:19. They are all moderate and positive, ranging from .11 to .45. It is interesting to compare the correlations of the total versus the global score with each component score, to see the relative contributions of each component measure in the two cases. In the case of the global score, punctuation is the most important contributor, with logic and time sequence the least important, though still high. In the global score, basic task fulfilment is more important than punctuation, logic is relatively high, and time sequence and anaphora are relatively unimportant. These differences show something of the way in which the raters' subjective weighting and combination of the component measures was different from the simple arithmetic mean.

Sociolinguistic Oral Production

Each subject made responses to three variations of each of six basic situations, for a total of 18 responses. The six basic situations consisted of two situations requiring a request, two requiring a suggestion, and two requiring a complaint.

Each response was scored for the presence (= 1) or absence (= 0) of each of six linguistic markers of formal register: introductory politeness marker, second person polite form, question form, conditional verb form, other additional information, and a concluding politeness marker (see section on scoring for details). A subject's score on a particular marker in a particular situation was taken as the difference between use of that marker in the formal variant of the situation and use in the informal variant. (Responses in the third variant -- semi-formal -- were not used in the final scoring scheme). That is, a difference score of 1 was awarded for use of a marker in the formal and non-use in the informal variant; a difference score of 0 for use in both or non-use in both; and a difference score of -1 for use in the informal variant but non-use in the formal variant.

Although occasionally individual subjects received negative difference scores for particular formal markers in particular situations, overall, all the formal markers were used more frequently in the formal variation than in the informal variation of a situation and hence the mean difference score over subjects for each marker in all situations is positive.

The mean difference score on each marker in each of the six basic situations is shown in Table III:20 and Figure III:5, for both the immersion group and the native speaker group. Table III:20 indicates, also, a total difference score, which is the total of the six individual marker scores in each situation. It is the difference between the total number of markers used in the formal variation and the total number used in the informal variation of each situation.

Table III:20 and Figure III:5 show that, while there is some variation between situations, native speakers in general achieve higher difference scores than the immersion students for most of the markers. In other words, their use of formal markers varies more with the social situation that does that of the immersion students. The difference between groups in the case of the second person polite marker is especially large. However, for two markers, the introductory politeness marker and final politeness marker, there is little difference between the groups. The total score nonetheless shows a consistent difference between groups in all six situations.

A comparison of the absolute formality scores of the immersion students and native speakers (see Table III:21 and Figure III:6), rather than their difference scores, shows that there are two kinds of sociolinguistic problems that the immersion students have relative to the native-speaker group: (1) they have a tendency to overuse certain formal markers in the informal context, viz., question forms, the addition of information justifying the request, suggestion, or complaint, and concluding politeness markers (e.g., s'il vous plaît); and (2) they are not making adequate use of other formal markers in the formal context, viz., vous forms and the conditional form of the verb .

In order to obtain for each subject a single score for each politeness marker and a single overall oral sociolinguistic score, mean scores over the six situations were calculated. These scores are presented in Table III:22 and Figure III:2e. Table III:22 also indicates that the native-speaker and immersion groups differ significantly on four of the six markers and on the total score, as indicated by t-tests.

Intercorrelations among the component scores averaged over the six situations for the immersion group only are presented in Table III:23. They are generally small and positive, except that the second person polite marker correlates negatively with all other markers. For this reason, we also considered a total score that excluded the second person polite marker. The new total score, however, correlates very highly with the original total score including this marker (r=.91), suggesting that it will not make much difference which total score is used.

An indication of the reliability of each component score was obtained by correlating, in the immersion group only, the two replications of each basic situation type -- request, suggestion, and complaint (Table III:24). The correlation of the second person polite marker for command could not be calculated because the marker was not tested in one of the replications[2]. These correlations are generally quite low, and even negative in cases, but it must be remembered that these individual component scores are based on a very small amount of information, and that when they are combined to produce a single score per subject, the reliability will increase. What is more important than the absolute size is the relative size of the correlations, which should reflect the relative reliability of each component score. The first three component scores seem to be somewhat more reliable than the last three, with the second person polite marker being the most reliable of the six.

The last two columns of Table III:24 show the corresponding correlations for the two total scores -- the sum of the six components, and the sum of the five components excluding second person polite -- in the first three rows. Notice that these correlations are higher than those for the individual component scores, because more data are included in them, although they are still fairly low, especially for complaint. In the next rows are correlations that are more directly relevant to estimating the reliability of the summary total score that represents the oral sociolinguistic cell as a whole. The fourth row gives the correlation between replications of the mean total score for the three types of situation together, which is considerably higher than for any individual situation. The Spearman-Brown formula may be used on the correlation in the fourth row to estimate the reliability of a whole cell score consisting of the mean total score of all three types of situation over both replications. This score has a reliability of .66. This value is acceptable for the present research purposes. Notice that the reliability is not much affected by inclusion or exclusion of the second person polite marker.

Sociolinguistic Multiple Choice

A detailed analysis of performance on this test was presented in the Year 1 Report, pages 27 to 33. Summary statistics for the 69 immersion students and ten native speakers are found in Table III:9.

Sociolinguistic Written Production

Two letters and two notes were each rated for the presence or absence of seven markers of formal register. The ability to use these markers appropriately would lead to greater use in the letters than in the notes. Use of each marker in letters and notes by the native speakers and immersion student samples is shown in Table III:25 and Figure III:7. On average, the use of all markers by both groups is greater in the letters than in the notes, but the difference is more pronounced for the native-speaking group. In particular, use of the conditional, second person polite form, and formal closing is greater by the native speakers than by immersion students in letters. Use of formal vocabulary is near zero in all cases. Use of question form, modal auxiliary, and politeness marker is similar in both groups, and higher, if anything, by the immersion students.

Difference scores were obtained for each subject on each marker by subtracting the subject's score in note 1 from letter 1, and note 2 from letter 2. These scores represent directly the subject's ability to vary his or her usage with the situation. These scores are presented in Table III:26, Figure III:2f and Figure III:8, and show the patterns one would expect from our consideration of the absolute scores.

The reliabilities of many of the markers in the immersion student group would seem to be very low, as indicated by correlations between difference scores for one letter-note pair and the other (Table III:27). Particularly low are use of modal auxiliary, question form, and formal vocabulary. Indeed it proved to be difficult to obtain a total score in this cell with adequate reliability. The simple sum or mean of the seven component measures had an estimated reliability of only .23. In order to increase this value, the vocabulary component was dropped, since formal vocabulary was used so little, even by native speakers. Also the three scores on which native speakers did not exceed immersion students -- namely, modal auxiliary, question, and politeness marker -- were combined into a single score, as follows: in each composition, if a student had used any one of these three markers, the new measure was scored as 'present' (= 2) in that composition; if the student had used none of the three, it was scored as 'absent' (= 1). Thus there remained four scores: conditional verb form, the combination score, second person polite, and formal closing. Difference scores (letter-note) were constructed for each of these, as outlined above for the original scores, and the mean of these difference scores across the two letter-note pairs proved to have adequate reliability: the correlation between the mean difference score for one letter-note pair and that for the other pair was .39, which leads to an estimated reliability (Spearman-Brown) of .56 for the two pairs together. Although not high, this level of reliability was judged to be adequate for the present purposes. Other combinations of component scores were also examined, but they did not produce any higher reliabilities.

Reliability and Generalizability of Scores

The theory of generalizability developed by Cronbach and colleagues (Cronbach, Gleser, Nanda, and Rajaratnam 1972) allows a more thorough investigation of the reliability of a test in different applications than does traditional reliability theory (Bolus, Hinofotis, and Bailey 1982). Generalizability studies were carried out in the four cells in which sufficient data were collected: the sociolinguistic oral production cell, and the three written production cells.

Traditional reliability coefficients for each of these tests were reported in previous sections, and are collected in Table III:28. These reliabilities are similar to split-half reliabilities in that they are calculated by splitting the final score for a cell into two parts, each based on half the available data, correlating the two half-test scores. This correlation coefficient was then increased by the Spearman-Brown formula to obtain a reliability estimate for the test as a whole. When different categories of composition or question were involved, such as letters and narratives in the case of grammatical written production, one composition or question of each type was included in each half-test. The traditional reliability coefficient that has been calculated, therefore, takes as error variance the variance due to topic as well as occasion of testing, while variance due to category of composition or question is eliminated when the average is taken over all categories.

The traditional reliability coefficients reported for the multiple-choice tests are Cronbach's alphas.

A generalizability study, or G-study, results in a set of variance component estimates which indicate the relative contribution of different sources of variance to the total score variance. The equivalent to the traditional reliability coefficient is the G-coefficient, which is calculated as a ratio of these variance components. Generalizability theory allows one to calculate G-coefficients of a test under various assumptions about which sources of variance are true score variance, and which are error. In addition, the variance component estimates can be used to calculate the reliability of tests that one might consider using in a future study, tests that are somewhat different from the one actually given.

The following G-studies have been carried out under two different sets of assumptions.

First, we assumed, as in the case of the traditional reliability estimates, that the basic test score was an average score over the two or three categories of topic included in each cell: i.e., letter and narrative for grammatical and discourse written production, and request, suggestion, and complaint for sociolinguistic oral production. Topics within each category were assumed to be a random sample of possible topics in that category. With this assumption, the G-coefficient generalizes beyond the particular topics used, but not beyond the particular categories of topic.

Second, we assumed that the basic test score was the score on any one topic within any category. Not only topics within a particular category, but the categories themselves were considered to be randomly chosen from a large set of possible topics and possible categories. With this assumption, the G-coefficient generalizes beyond both the topic and categories actually used. The G-coefficient will be lower than with the first assumption, because variation in performance across categories of topic is now taken as error variance.

Which assumption is most useful depends on the particular test. In the case of sociolinguistic oral production, the three categories actually used (request, suggestion, and complaint) are reasonably thought of as a selection from a somewhat larger set, any of which would be equally appropriate in testing sociolinguistic competence. Hence the second assumption is probably the more useful, except that the larger set is nowhere near infinite, so that there is probably some interest also in considering the first assumption. In the case of grammatical written production, the two categories (letter and narrative) were chosen to accentuate different aspects of grammatical competence, and hence a complete test of this trait should include both categories. Therefore, the first assumption is more reasonable, except that these same aspects of grammatical competence could have been tested with a different choice of categories, so that there is also some interest in the second assumption. In any cell, the two assumptions could be thought of as establishing upper and lower bounds on the generalizability of the test.

In order to include classroom as a facet in the G-study, one randomly chosen student from each of three classrooms was dropped, leaving 11 students in each of six classrooms, for a total sample size of 66. The variance components were calculated using the program BMDP8V, part of the Biomedical Program Package.

Table III:28 shows the G-coefficient for each test under the two assumptions. The values correspond, at least roughly, to the traditional reliability coefficients.

Table III:29 presents the detailed variance component estimates for each test, under the two assumptions. It is possible to calculate from these components the level

of generalizability that would be achieved with longer tests, including more topics or questions, more categories of topic or question, or both. Some interesting calculations along these lines are presented in Table III:30.

The figures presented in Table III:28 show that the reliabilities of the oral and written production tests are at least as high as those of the corresponding multiple-choice tests. The reliabilities of these tests are therefore quite satisfactory.

However, on the basis of these reliabilities a change in the experimental design was felt to be necessary. The original design called for using only half the available data for the grammatical written production and discourse written production cells. That is, for the purposes of the G-study, data from four topics were collected, and all topics were scored for both grammar and discourse. In order to keep the two cells strictly independent, however, it was intended that the final score for grammar would be based on two topics, and the final score for discourse on the other two. The use of data from two topics only would seriously lower the reliability, as indicated in Table III:30 (and by the correlations between replications presented in earlier sections). Especially in view of the fact that every effort was made to score for different features of the compositions in grammar and discourse, it was decided, therefore, to give up the strict independence between these cells in order to keep the reliability as high as possible.

Testing of the Proficiency Model

The detailed analyses of component scores within each cell and the composition of overall scores for each cell have been described. As a starting point for testing the model by comparisons among groups and by factor analyses, the following scores were used from each cell:

1. Grammatical oral production (cell 1,1). Total score, being the total percentage of correct uses, including syntax, prepositions, and verbs;

2. Discourse oral production (cell 1,2). Global score, being the rater's subjective integration of scene setting, identification of characters, logic, time sequence, and argument;

3. Sociolinguistic oral production (cell 1,3). Total score, being the difference between number of types of formal markers used in the formal situation, and the number used in the informal situation;

4. Grammatical multiple choice (cell 2,1). Total items correct;

5. Discourse multiple choice (cell 2,2). Total items correct;

6. Sociolinguistic multiple choice (cell 2,3). Total of weighted answers;

7. Grammatical written production (cell 3,1). Total score, being the total percentage of correct uses, including syntax, prepositions, and verbs (counting both homophonous and non-homophonous errors);

8. Discourse written production (cell 3,2). Global score, being the raters' subjective integration of basic task fulfilment, identification of characters, time sequence, anaphora, logic, and punctuation;

9. Sociolinguistic written production (cell 3,3). Total score, being the difference between number of formal markers used in a formal letter and the number used in an informal note.

Comparison of Native-Speaker and Immersion Groups

Although the tested group of native French speakers was comparatively small (n=10), their performance on many of the tests was high enough to be significantly superior to the immersion students' (n=69). The comparisons for the relevant total or global scores for each cell, which have already been presented in connection with the discussion of the component measures, are collected in Table III:31. The table includes the means for each group, t-tests, the statistic ω^2, and Mann-Whitney U-tests. The statistic ω^2 is a measure of the size of the difference between groups relative to the variance within groups, based on the value of t (Hays 1972). It can vary from 0 to 1 and represents the strength of a relationship in much the same way as a correlation coefficient. The Mann-Whitney U-tests (nonparametric tests for group differences) are provided because the standard deviations of the two groups are often quite unequal, and violate the equal variance assumption of the t-test. However, the pattern of results with the U tests essentially replicates the pattern with the t-tests and ω^2 statistic.

Differences between the groups depend on the trait. For grammar, the difference is large regardless of method; for discourse, the difference is small regardless of method; and for the sociolinguistic trait the difference is again large, but only for two of the three methods. These results suggest that the grammatical trait is clearly different from the discourse trait, though the position of the sociolinguistic trait is less clear. That is, grade 6 native speakers are not uniformly superior to grade 6 immersion students in their language competence, but superior only in certain of the traits specified by the model, namely grammatical competence, and perhaps sociolinguistic competence. In discourse competence, native speakers exceed immersion students only slightly. This provides some strong validation at least for the model's distinction between grammatical and discourse competence.

The lack of superiority of native French-speaking students in discourse competence can be understood in terms of the literature on first language development of discourse processes. Much of this work suggests that various aspects of discourse competence are just beginning to be learned in the first language around grade 6 (see Bereiter and Scardamalia 1983, for a recent review). Hence the native-speaking group may still be relatively poor at these skills. Another consideration is that discourse competence may be a more readily transferable element of linguistic competence than the other traits.

Intercorrelations and Factor Analyses on the Immersion Group

The correlations among the scores of the nine cells, for the 69 subjects in the immersion student sample, are presented in Table III:32. Inspection of this table shows immediately that the simplest interpretation of the correlations in terms of three traits and three methods only is not possible. If the only causes of correlations were shared trait and method, tests that shared neither would not correlate, or at least not as highly as tests that shared a common trait, a common method, or both. Yet some pairs of tests that share neither trait nor method do correlate highly, such as grammatical multiple-choice and discourse written production (.47). The moderate level of correlations among all tests suggests the presence of a general factor.

An exploratory factor analysis (using the SPSS FACTOR program, PA2, with varimax rotation--Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Brent 1975) showed the presence of a strong general factor, with three factors altogether with eigenvalues above 1. The first factor (before rotation) accounted for 35 per cent of the variance, and successive factors accounted for 15 and 12 per cent respectively. The varimax solution was interesting, but not interpretable in any simple way in terms of trait or method factors. It is presented in Table III:33. Two-factor and four-factor varimax solutions were also obtained, but were likewise hard to interpret. This is not surprising, in view of the apparently strong general factor. The varimax rotation is designed to optimize simple structure, in which each factor has high loadings on a few tests, and low or zero loadings on the remaining tests. Since a general factor has high loadings on all tests, it will generally not emerge in a varimax rotation. Hence if the best description of the data includes a general factor the varimax method will not be satisfactory.

The loadings of the nine tests on the general factor -- i.e., the first factor before rotation--are of interest. They are given in Table III:33. The tests that load most highly on this factor are the multiple-choice and written production tests, with the exception of sociolinguistic written production. This suggests that the factor reflects to a great extent the sorts of language competence that are learned in school: competence in written language rather than spoken language, emphasizing grammar and discourse rather than sociolinguistic aspects.

LISREL

A number of hypotheses concerning the structure underlying the correlations among the nine scores were tested using the LISREL program. Initial efforts were aimed at finding an acceptable factor analysis involving two or three trait factors and two or three method factors, possibly with a general factor as well. However, there were technical difficulties, including negative variance estimates, and factor loadings and uniqueness estimates greater than 1, with the solutions for all such hypotheses. Among the analyses of this sort that were tried was an analysis comparable to the solution reported by Bachman and Palmer (1982) for their data. This included in our case a general factor, two trait factors -- one for grammar and discourse combined and one for sociolinguistics, and two method factors -- one for oral testing and one for written (multiple choice and written production combined). Also tried were the obvious six- and seven-factor solutions, including three trait factors (grammar, discourse, sociolinguistics), and three method factors (oral, multiple choice, composition), with and without a general factor. None of these analyses was successful.

In order to eliminate the technical difficulties of these attempted solutions, a number of changes were made. The main problem seemed to be that too many factors were being fitted for the nine variables available in the data, so that the solution was indeterminate. Accordingly, analyses with fewer factors were tried. In addition, some of the variables seemed to be especially problematic, and the make-up of these variables was examined to try to improve them. In two cases (grammatical and sociolinguistic oral production), the total score had included a component that was negatively correlated with the other components (prepositions and second person polite form, respectively). New total scores, omitting these components, were calculated. In a third case (sociolinguistic written production), the total score again included a component that was negatively correlated with the remaining components (again, second person polite form). However, when this component was removed from the total score, the total score itself then correlated negatively with several of the other cells. The sociolinguistic written production score was therefore temporarily dropped from the analysis, leaving only eight cell scores.

With these changes to the scores, a number of two-, three-, and four-factor analyses were tried. The situation was improved, but analyses that included trait factors generally continued to produce meaningless solutions, either continuing to present the same technical problems as before, or showing negative loadings of one or more tests on their own trait factor. Solutions of more than two (or sometimes three) factors that included a general factor continued to present technical difficulties.

One very acceptable solution was found, however, and is presented in Table III:34. It is a two-factor solution with a general factor and a method factor. The method factor includes all the written tests (multiple choice and written production, except the sociolinguistic written production, which had been dropped from the analysis). The solution fits the data very well ($\chi^2 = 5.67$, df = 15, $p > .98$). Notice that the five tests that load on the written factor are the same five that loaded most highly on the general factor of the initial exploratory factor analysis. Again we would interpret these particular tests to be tapping the sorts of linguistic competencies that are typically learned in the classroom. In the LISREL analysis, this 'school-French' competence has emerged as a separate factor.

Although this solution was found after the above noted changes to the variables had been made, it turns out not to depend critically on those changes. The same analysis was re-run with the original nine cell scores, and the results were essentially the same. The sociolinguistic written production score in this new solution had a small negative loading (-.03) on the general factor, which we interpret as indicating a true loading that is very small or zero, and a moderate loading (.49) on the written method factor.

This analysis makes sense within the framework of the present model of language competence, and supports one aspect of the method distinction. It does not, however, show the validity of the three postulated traits. It has already been shown that in the wider context of immersion students plus native speakers, at least two of the three traits, grammar and discourse, are clearly distinct. The fact that these two traits do not emerge in the present analysis is probably largely due to the homogeneity of the present sample. In the wider sample, the native speakers have very different experiences from the immersion students, but among the immersion students the main experience of French for all the students is in the same sort of immersion classroom. There are not strong opportunities for some students to acquire certain aspects of language proficiency, and others to acquire different aspects.

We are currently continuing to investigate the factor structure of the present data by examining the correlations among the full set of 40 component scores. If there are at least some opportunities for students to selectively acquire different aspects of language competence in the immersion classroom, it may be possible to decompose the general factor of the above analysis into one or more trait factors, and possibly to find other method factors as well. There is a better possibility of achieving technically acceptable solutions of several factors with the LISREL program if more variables are entered into the analysis. It seems that if there are distinguishable trait factors in the data, they are weak relative to the two factors that emerged in the main analysis, and will be seen only if a successful factor analysis of at least four or five factors can be done. The inclusion of all 40 of the component scores, or at least a large subset of them, may allow such a factor analysis, which seems to be blocked by the small number of variables when total scores are used.

Conclusions

Although the confirmatory factor analysis presented above supports the existence of a context-reduced method dimension, it provides little evidence that the hypothesized traits of grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic competence are distinguishable among grade 6 French immersion students. Yet the comparison between native speaker and immersion student performance suggests a distinction between discourse and both grammatical and sociolinguistic traits in that large differences were evident on measures of the latter two traits but not on measures of discourse competence. We pointed out that this pattern of findings can be understood in terms of the relatively limited range of French experiences available to the immersion students. The emergence of an academic context-reduced factor in addition to a global factor reflects the fact that students' contact with and use of French has been almost exclusively within a classroom context.

However, although our findings are clearly interpretable on a *post hoc* basis, the fact that they do not confirm our initial hypotheses raises the issue of what their theoretical implications are for attempts to validate models of 'language proficiency' or 'communicative competence'. In this regard we can distinguish three stages in the relatively brief history of empirical research into the nature of communicative competence.

The first stage was essentially a continuation of factor analytic work carried out between 1920 and 1970 by researchers such as Thurstone, Carroll, Guilford, Spearman, Burt, and Jensen whose aim was to discover the basic structure of mental abilities, including language abilities. John Oller was a principal figure associated with this first stage and what distinguished his work from that of the earlier factor analytic investigators was that its theoretical basis derived from applied linguistics rather than from psychometrics. Thus, although Oller employed essentially the same analytic methods, namely variations of exploratory factor analysis, and his results were similar to those of several other investigators (e.g. Burt, Spearman, Jensen) in showing a strong general factor which incorporated both language and non-language abilities, his empirical results were interpreted within a coherent framework of relatively sophisticated theoretical constructs (e.g. the pragmatic expectancy grammar) derived from applied linguistics (see Cummins 1983, Oller 1983).

Oller's (1981) provocative claim on the basis of his research and theory that language proficiency was largely indistinguishable from intelligence spurred considerable theoretical controversy and focussed further research on the nature of language proficiency. The second stage of research into this issue was characterized by the use of a much more sophisticated form of factor analysis than that used by Oller. Confirmatory factor analysis allowed the explicit testing of theoretical models and was first applied to the field of language proficiency by Purcell (1983) and Bachman and Palmer (1982). Bachman and Palmer's work drew on the theoretical model of communicative competence developed by Canale and Swain (1980) and their results showed clearly that more than just one general factor could be extracted from language proficiency data. In fact, both trait and method factors could be distinguished. Taking account of the work of Bachman and Palmer and also of the cogent criticisms of other researchers (see Oller 1983), Oller admitted that his former position was overstated and that there probably were nontrivial dimensions of language proficiency in addition to a general factor.

This was essentially the 'state of the art' when we began our study and it led to our adoption of confirmatory factor analysis to investigate the applicability of our theoretical model to the second language proficiencies of grade 6 French immersion students. This group of students seemed appropriate in view of previous studies (e.g. Swain and Lapkin 1982) showing that their French skills were relatively well-developed but there still existed considerable within-group variance as well as differences between immersion and native French-speaking students. However, as our theoretical constructs evolved during the course of the study, it became clear to us that if specific trait or method factors emerged from the confirmatory factor analysis, this would constitute evidence for the validity of distinguishing specific dimensions (e.g. grammatical and discourse competence); however, if specific traits were not distinguishable in our sample, this would not mean that these traits might not be distinguishable in other samples with different language learning experiences. In other words, we became more explicitly conscious of the fact that the relationships between different components of proficiency (i.e. the structure of communicative competence) were a function of the specific language learning experiences to which particular samples of individuals were exposed. This perspective was expressed by Cummins (1983:124) as follows:

> ... validation studies (and theories of communicative competence) should be conceptualized developmentally, since very different relationships might be found between, for example, grammatical and sociolinguistic competence (in Canale and Swain's, 1980, terms) among beginning L2 learners as compared with advanced L2 learners.
>
> Viewed from this perspective, current efforts to validate theories of communicative competence are relatively limited in scope insofar as most studies have been conducted only with adult L2 learners and the relationships among

> hypothesized components of proficiency have not been conceptualized developmentally.

The evolution of our theoretical conceptualization of the issues together with our empirical findings suggests a third stage in the investigation of the nature of communicative competence. While the use of confirmatory factor analysis would certainly not be dispensed with, the results of this and other analytic methods would be interpreted explicitly in terms of how different aspects of communicative competence have developed as a function of specific language acquisition/learning experiences. Thus, the central empirical focus changes from an attempt to test absolute models of communicative competence to an attempt to predict and test which components of communicative competence will become differentiated from each other for particular groups of language learners (either first or second language) in specific acquisition/learning contexts. These predictions for empirical testing would draw on both abstract models of communicative competence (e.g. Canale and Swain 1980) and theories regarding the developmental effects on acquisition of individual, social, and instructional variables.

The changed focus of the third investigative stage we have suggested implies the use of more extensive analytic methods than factor analysis alone in exploring the nature and development of language proficiency. For example, comparisons of native-speaker and L2 learners' development of different aspects of proficiency (as we have done above) and multivariate analyses of the development of proficiency over time (e.g. Bruck in press) are both obvious ways of increasing our understanding of how language proficiency develops. Similar suggestions for a change of emphasis in testing models of language proficiency have been made by Cziko (1981) and Vollmer and Sang (1983).

The empirical data we have described in this chapter show how results derived from different forms of analysis (confirmatory factor analysis, native speaker-L2 acquirer comparisons) complement each other in helping to conceptualize the nature of language proficiency. In our future studies we intend to build on the insights we have gained from this initial study to generate and test, as far as is feasible, specific hypotheses about how different dimensions of proficiency develop and become differentiated as a function of students' specific language learning experiences.

Other Proficiency Studies Conducted in Year 2

Summary: Communicative Skills of Young Second Language Learners

This study (see also Appendix B and Appendix File 4) focussed on two issues of major concern to the Project:

1. To what extent is it possible to score various aspects of oral second language performance in a relatively objective and detailed way, and how do these objective frequency counts relate to global, more subjective assessments on rating scales?
2. How are the variables that measure these aspects of oral L2 performance, interrelated? What support can be found for separate proficiency components such as speech fluency (hesitations), communicative style, sociolinguistic competence, and discourse competence, in addition to grammatical and lexical competence? The specific theoretical contexts for the investigation of these issues are (a) Cummins' (1981,1983) distinction between tasks in which language is used for purposes of interpersonal communication and those in which language is used in a more abstract, academic fashion, and (b) Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983a,b) distinction between four kinds of communicative competence, namely grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence.

The study also explored the influence of students' exposure to L2 (indicated by immigrant students' length of residence in the L2 community) and the influence of their age on different aspects of proficiency.

Methodology

For this exploratory investigation, an already existing data set appeared highly suitable, namely the data that had been collected by Cummins, Swain, Nakajima, Handscombe, Green and Tran, in their study "Linguistic Interdependence among Japanese and Vietnamese Immigrant Students" (in press). In this study, 59 Japanese and 45 Vietnamese students, living in Toronto, were administered a large number of written and oral language tests in their mother tongue as well as in English. The present study focusses on a reanalysis of the data elicited by some of these tests, namely the English communicative tests (interview, role-play telephone calls, and story telling from a sequence of pictures), from a subsample of Japanese immigrant students. The subsample consisted of 11 grade 2/3 and 11 grade 5/6 Japanese students who had been in Canada from 15 months to 5 1/2 years.

The data from the English communicative measures were transcribed and scored by means of frequency counts for a great number of features that were considered of possible relevance to the notion of communicative language skills. This yielded 61 raw score variables, from which 27 proportion variables and seven combined variables were calculated (see Appendix B for further details).

Results

1. Objective and Global Scoring:

Many of the theoretically more interesting variables, pertaining to turn taking, sociolinguistic skills, and fluency, turned out to have skewed, J-shaped distributions, while some variables could not be interpreted in an unambiguous way in terms of their positive or negative value for communicative skills. However, quite a few other variables showed a more psychometrically manageable distribution of individual data points.

Comparisons were carried out with ten of the rating scales of the original study. The results indicate that if a construct can be adequately operationalized in quantitative terms, it can be measured by means of a global rating scale, which yields an interval scale, as well as by counting exact frequencies per individual, which yields a ratio scale.

For instance, the Richness of Information scale from the Cummins et al. study correlated substantially with the ratios Tokens per Turn, Spontaneous Turns, and Non-answers. Also, the Ease scale, pertaining to the students' shyness or ease in the interview, correlated substantially with the ratios Continuations (spontaneous continuation of speech after having given a semantically adequate answer), One-token Turns, Latencies, and Spontaneous Turns. However, some correlations both within and between qualitative (i.e. global rating) and quantitative measures were lower than hypothesized on theoretical grounds because of the lack of adequate variability in the primary data. This was especially apparent in the case of variables related to the semantic appropriateness of students' answers, to their use of clarification strategies, and to fluency or hesitation phenomena in their speech where even the combination of variables did not yield composite variables with satisfactory psychometric variability.

2. Factors of Communicative Skills:

The second objective of this study was to carry out exploratory factor analyses on variables (frequency counts) with reasonable distributions, in an attempt to find factors for turn-taking features, sociolinguistic and cohesion characteristics, and fluency phenomena, separately from grammar and vocabulary. Two groups of variables were factor analyzed, the first group consisting of 26 variables, taken not only from the communicative tests but also from the academic tests. The most interpretable solution yielded three orthogonal factors (Table 1 in Appendix B). The first factor was labeled General English Proficiency; all academic tests (e.g. Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary) loaded highly on this factor as well as all variables from the picture story. Since this story consisted of a monologue, it is more akin to the academic tests than to the interview and the telephone calls that consisted of an interaction with an interlocutor.

The second factor was labeled Vocabulary Knowledge. The core of this factor consisted, in the interview, of Idiomatic Expressions (covering many conversational speech acts), and, in the telephone calls, of One-token Turns (negative), Types, and Idiomatic Expressions (covering many speech acts typical for telephone conversations). The academic tests Vocabulary, Antonyms, and Sentence Repetition also contributed substantially to this factor.

In contrast to the first two factors, the third one is predominantly nonlinguistic in nature. It consists mainly of the following six interview variables: students' Tokens, Continuations, Spontaneous Turns, Hesitations, and, on the part of the interviewer, Repetitions of Questions, and Comments (as opposed to questions). This factor was given the label Communicative Style, to show its affinity with the Interactional Style Factor in the original Cummins et al. study. The latter factor was mainly formed by scales such as Richness, Semantic Appropriateness, and Ease. However, the first two of these scales combine linguistic with nonlinguistic features. The Communicative Style Factor in the present study, in contrast, manifests a predominantly nonlinguistic, personal profile to a greater extent than the Cummins et al. Interactional Style Factor.

No separate factor was found for the fluency variables that were entered in this factor analysis. Pausing before turn initiation was totally unrelated to pausing, repeating, and correcting within turns. Moreover, there was virtually no relation between hesitations in the interview (pausing, repeating, and correcting within turns), and speech rate in the story-telling task.

In a second factor analysis, eight variables were entered, taken only from the communicative tests. They were hypothesized to represent three postulated traits: Vocabulary, Cohesion, and Conversational Skills. However, the three-factor solution did not confirm the expected pattern, while it could not be given another interpretation either. The two-factor solution, however, showed a clear method effect (Table 2 in

Appendix B), the interview variables loading on one factor and the picture story variables, joined by the only telephone conversation variable, loading on the other. This solution, although not anticipated, still supports the results of the previous analysis: the interview tapped an ability to maintain a conversation, whereas the story demanded verbal behaviour of a non-interactional nature.

3. Effects of Exposure and Age:

The effects of Length of Residence (LOR) and Age on the development of L2 proficiency were investigated by means of two-way analyses of variance with LOR and Age as independent variables and the factor scores of the three factors mentioned earlier as dependent variables. The results showed that the General English Proficiency Factor was strongly affected by LOR, and moderately (at the .07 level) by Age. The Vocabulary Knowledge Factor was affected only by LOR, while the Communicative Style Factor was affected by neither LOR nor Age.

It was concluded that amount of L2 exposure, for which LOR is a gross index, is the most important factor determining the level of linguistic skills. Cognitive development, as indicated by Age, appears to be a less important but substantial determiner of L2 skills in cognitively demanding tasks but not in undemanding conversational tasks. Communicative style, however, is not related to L2 exposure nor to cognitive development. It is suggested that it can rather be considered as a manifestation of personality.

Conclusions

The main findings of this study appear to support several of the notions and corollaries from both Canale and Swain's and Cummins' model. The Cummins et al. study, and this study in its footsteps, demonstrate that there is more to L2 proficiency than 'just' knowledge of words and linguistic rules. It is the type of task in which this knowledge has to be applied that plays a crucial moderating role. Or, formulated in terms of Bachman and Palmer's (1981) measurement approach, a crucial role is played by the method with which the linguistic skills are measured. A paper-and-pencil reading test, a face-to-face interview, and a story-telling task all measure linguistic skills but each does so in a very different way, and along with different nonlinguistic skills.

The study also illustrates some of the difficulties of trying to psychometrically validate conceptual models of communicative proficiency such as Canale and Swain's. The specific problem is that measures which faithfully reflect the construct may not have adequate psychometric properties (e.g. the large number of J-shaped distributions in this study) whereas measures that are designed to have good psychometric properties may violate the nature of the construct they are intended to assess.

Summary: Transfer in the Written Compositions of French Immersion Students

The purpose of this study (see Appendix C) was to investigate the role of mother tongue transfer in the written L2 production of early French immersion students. Given the shared mother tongue, English, of the students in the program and the continuing dominance of English as the language of communication for the students outside the immersion classroom and beyond the school, it was predicted that mother tongue transfer would remain a factor in the L2 production of the students in the upper elementary grades. Through an investigation of compositions written by grade 6 immersion students, evidence was sought for the hypothesis that transfer may be manifested in the way that L2 learners distribute semantic information across syntactic elements in the L2. This hypothesized type of transfer, it is noted, would not necessarily lead to outright errors in the L2.

In the course of scoring the grade 6 immersion students' compositions in the context of the large-scale proficiency study described earlier in this chapter, it was observed that there were some errors that were hard to classify as specific to a particular part of speech, and that there were also occasions when a sentence would appear nonnative-like without containing outright errors. In light of these observations, it was decided to carry out a detailed analysis of some of the immersion students' compositions in comparison with those produced by native speakers.

Two considerations suggested that use of prepositions might provide an appropriate focus for the study: (a) the narrative compositions, in particular Au secours!, provided the opportunity to use a variety of spatial expressions; and (b) previous studies had indicated that prepositions were an area of French where English-speaking learners appeared to have continuing problems with mother tongue transfer.

A subsample of 44 compositions written on the topic Au secours! was selected for the study. Half of these compositions were written by a class of native French speakers at the grade 6 level, and the other half were written by 22 of the grade 6 immersion students who had also been orally tested in the context of the large-scale proficiency study. These immersion students were in two classes randomly selected from the larger sample of six immersion classes.

For the topic Au secours!, students were asked to write a story of about 12 lines about the rescue of a kitten from a tree. The opening of the story was supplied, placing the kitten asleep on a verandah and leaving unfinished a sentence beginning: Tout d'un coup trois chiens...

Preliminary Analysis

Preliminary inspection of the Au secours! stories produced by the students revealed that they contained a very similar series of events, although not every student included all of the following: (1) arrival of dogs; (2) flight and/or chase of cat; (3) cat's ascent of tree; (4) departure of dogs; (5) rescue of cat. These events clearly involve several changes of location. The issue, then, is how these events were expressed linguistically by the L2 learners in comparison with the native speakers.

A contrastive analysis of how spatial notions of location and direction tend to be realized syntactically in English and French shows that the two languages differ in this regard (for details see Appendix C). In English, prepositions generally serve an important role in conveying the location/direction distinction. For example, there are contrasting pairs such as at/to, in/into, on/onto, and other prepositions which are primarily locative or directional in meaning. In French, this is generally not the case. Common prepositions such as à, dans, en, and sur are neutral with respect to the location/direction distinction. The general tendency in French and other Romance languages is for direction to be expressed in the verb rather than in an associated prepositional phrase. In terms of the transfer hypothesis, then, the English-speaking immersion students are expected to transfer the English tendency to rely heavily on prepositions to express the notion of direction, instead of relying on the verb as is characteristic of French.

Findings

A comparison of the *Au secours!* stories written by the native-speaking and immersion students indicated that the compositions written by the native speakers were on average about 20 per cent longer than those produced by the immersion students. Despite this difference in length, the immersion students used just as many prepositions ($\bar{X} = 5.41$) to express spatial relationships as did the native speakers ($\bar{X} = 5.00$). However, the way in which such prepositions were used in the immersion compositions differed in some repects from the way in which they were used by the French-speaking students.

Tables 1 and 2 in Appendix C provide an overall summary of the prepositions produced by each group in spatial expressions, together with some basic information concerning their occurrence in locative and directional expressions. It is noted that as well as producing just as many instances of such prepositions overall, the immersion students also produced as many different simple and complex prepositions in spatial contexts as the native speakers. An additional similarity is observed in the number of times prepositions were used in a locative (positional) sense by the two groups.

The main difference between the groups occurs in the context of directional expressions. The immersion students were more likely to use a non-directional verb of motion (such as courir 'to run') + preposition to express a directional event than were the native speakers. There were 37 such uses by the immersion students compared with nine uses by the native speakers. Moreover, when the native speakers did use a non-directional verb of motion + preposition to express a directional event, they invariably used a preposition, or prepositional phrase, that was marked for direction (e.g., après, vers, jusqu'à, dans tous les sens). The immersion students, on the other hand, did not consistently do so. Most striking is their frequent use of the unmarked preposition à as an equivalent for English directional 'to'. In the sentence le chat courait à la maison 'the cat ran home', produced by one immersion student, a directional meaning is intended, as we know from the context since the cat was not in the house, but this meaning is not unambiguously realized in French by the preposition à.

The immersion students did not only use prepositions unmarked for the directional distinction in the context of verbs such as courir but appeared in some cases to be attempting to mark direction more often than the native speakers by means of complex prepositions such as jusqu'à. As expected, the native speakers appeared altogether much more likely to be marking direction in the verb than they were in prepositions, and as an analysis of the main events of the story illustrates (see Appendix C), there were also many occasions when directional verbs were used by the native speakers without additional spatial information being indicated in an adverbial phrase. Among the immersion students, on the other hand, even the use of directional verbs tended more often to be associated with a prepositional phrase indicating spatial relationships.

Conclusions

The findings of the study provide support for the hypothesis that the English-speaking immersion students, in expressing the spatial notion of direction in French, would show a systematic tendency to rely more heavily on prepositions than the native speakers.

In the analysis it is observed that this tendency is in keeping with an overall trend in the immersion students' mother tongue, English. At the same time, it is possible that the tendency to use adverbial means at first to express direction may be a natural developmental stage in language acquisition (see e.g., Clark in press, with reference to first language acquisition of Romance languages). This possibility is an interesting one that is not inconsistent with the interpretation of mother tongue transfer. In previous studies of immersion students' oral production, for example, it has frequently been observed that there may be several interacting and mutually-supporting sources for the systematic interlanguage characteristics that are found. From a theoretical perspective, too, it has been argued that transfer to a near-congruent L2 is promoted when the mother tongue structure more closely conforms to general acquisition regularities or processes than the target L2 structure.

From an educational perspective, the crucial question is how best to 'treat' the continued presence of systematic transfer in the L2 production of immersion students after several years in the program. This, of course, depends on our interpretation of how such transfer may have arisen. Two aspects to this issue are suggested by the concepts of 'knowledge' and 'control' developed by Bialystok and Ryan (in press; see Appendix I and Appendix File 3), and by our informal observations in immersion classrooms. First, the

L2 input to which the students have been exposed appears to have led them to a knowledge of the L2 that assumes greater congruence with their mother tongue than in fact exists; and, secondly, the students may not have had an adequate opportunity to develop processing control in production of the L2. Swain (1982), for example, has observed that as the grade level increases, the opportunities to practise speaking the L2 may actually decline. These considerations lead to the conclusion that classroom experiments are needed to examine the effect of providing more focussed L2 input in immersion classrooms and creating further ample opportunities for meaningful use of the L2 in specific areas. Such input would need to take account of deep-seated differences between the first and second language as well as the inherent complexities of the L2 system.

IV CLASSROOM TREATMENT STUDIES

Aim of the Studies

The aim of these studies is to examine the effects of classroom treatment, that is of L2 instruction, on the acquisition of the target language. For this purpose an observation instrument was required which could describe essential features of the L2 classroom and which could differentiate among various approaches to language teaching, specifically between more structurally and more communicatively oriented approaches. We found that none of the existing observation instruments could be adopted in its entirety for the purpose of this study (see Year 1 Report, pages 34 - 37 for a review of observation instruments). We therefore decided to develop our own observation scheme (COLT = Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching), which would contain categories to measure features of communication typical of classroom discourse, as well as categories to measure how closely these interaction patterns resemble the ways in which language is used in non-instructional settings.

The work so far has included three phases, as follows:

(a) Literature review and development of the observation scheme (January to December 1982).

(b) Validation study: observation scheme piloted in a variety of second language programs (January 25 to May 31 1983).

(c) Analysis of pilot data (from June 1 1983).

We are currently at the end of the pilot phase of data collection for the validation study, and in the early stages of analyzing the pilot data. This chapter will include an introduction to our approach to classroom observation, a description and rationale of the COLT observation categories, a discussion of the coding procedures, a report on some pre-pilot data, and a preliminary report on data collected during the validation study.

Introduction to Observation Scheme

The current tendency to pay closer attention to what teachers actually do in the classroom -- as distinct from what linguists and psychologists say they should do -- has been encouraged by the realization that vague generalized references to global language teaching methods cannot adequately describe the teaching-learning process. The tendency of much research in the past has been to view teaching as a simple concept in terms of the pedagogical methods employed. Descriptions of L2 instruction have often been based on imprecise terminology such as 'grammar-translation', 'audiolingual method' or, more recently, 'communicative language teaching'. For example, a well-known study by Scherer and Wertheimer in the mid-sixties (1964) set out to compare students who had been taught by grammar-translation and those who had been taught audiolingually, in order to determine which method would lead to the most successful language learning. A few years later, the Pennsylvania Project (Smith 1970) attempted to determine the effects of the audiolingual approach on the L2 achievement of students in a two-year secondary school program. Although these studies have valuable aspects, they remain inconclusive partly because their reference to global methods proved insufficient to distinguish between the actual practices of teachers in classrooms. The nature of the dilemma was summed up by Bialystok, Fröhlich, and Howard(1978: 7) as follows:

> It is evident that the specific behaviours used by two different teachers may vary greatly even though they are implementing the same teaching program, or even presenting the same lesson. If these individual differences have significance for the teaching-learning process... then a general reference to overall methods or approaches is inadequate for the purposes of describing second language teaching and relating that teaching to learning outcomes.

The instructional variables selected for examination in the COLT scheme have been motivated by a desire to describe as precisely as possible some of the features of communication which occur in L2 classrooms. Our concept of 'communicative feature' has been derived from current theories of communicative competence, from the literature on communicative language teaching, and from a review of recent research into first and second language acquisition. The observational categories are designed (a) to capture significant features of verbal interaction in L2 classrooms, and (b) to provide a means of comparing classroom discourse with 'natural' language as it is used outside the classroom. One reason for undertaking this research was to investigate the claim that a knowledge of the formal aspects of language develops out of meaningful language use, rather than the other way round. According to Hatch (1978: 404):

> the basic assumption has been ... that one first learns to manipulate structures, that one gradually builds up a repertoire ... and then, somehow, learns to put the structures to use in discourse. We would like to consider the possibility that just the reverse happens. One learns to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed.

Although recent approaches to L2 instruction, e.g. communicative language teaching, emphasize the need for a more meaningful and natural use of language inside the classroom, there seems to have been little research aimed at indicating the precise differences, if any, in methodology and outcomes which distinguish these from more traditional approaches. Michael Canale, in a recent paper, notes "the current disarray in conceptualization, research and application in the area of communicative language pedagogy", and suggests that it "results in large part from failure to consider and develop an adequate theoretical framework" (Canale 1983b). As a result of the controversy which surrounds such ill-defined concepts as 'functional practice', 'meaningful discourse', and 'authentic language use', we decided not to attempt a definition of communicative language teaching as a general global concept, but rather to compile a list of indicators of communicative behaviour, each of which could be separately observed and quantified. We hoped that this approach would enable us to investigate the communicative orientation of L2 classrooms, especially in those cases where two or more teachers claimed to be following different pedagogic approaches.

Description and Rationale of the Observation Scheme

The COLT observation scheme is divided into two parts (see Appendices D:1 and D:2). Part A describes classroom events at the level of activity, and Part B analyzes the communicative features of verbal exchanges between teachers and students as they occur within each activity. The decision to establish 'classroom activity' as the main unit of analysis was based on the fact that this concept is familiar to teachers and constitutes the focus around which most teaching is conceived and organized. The rationale for Part B derives from the fact that the development of communicative competence is a major concern in the current language teaching literature, and constitutes one of the basic issues in the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project of which the classroom observation studies form a part. In this section we will present a brief discussion of the main parameters of the observation scheme. The description of classroom activities will be dealt with first, followed by a presentation and discussion of the communicative features of classroom interaction proposed in this scheme.

Part A: Description of Classroom Activities

Although the concept of classroom activity is intuitively and pedagogically meaningful, a clear and unambiguous theoretical definition is not easily obtained. For this reason an operational definition containing five distinct parameters has been tentatively established. Each activity, including where appropriate the constituent subsections or episodes (cf. Mitchell, Parkinson, and Johnstone 1981), is described with reference to the five parameters, as follows:

I. Activity type
II. Participant organization
III. Content
IV. Student modality
V. Materials

Each parameter includes several subsections, some of which are hierarchically organized. They represent a combination of high and low inference categories. Although the parameters and their constituent categories are intended to serve a descriptive purpose, their selection is theoretically motivated in that they reflect current theories of communicative competence, and other issues in first and second language learning which have been influential in the development of L2 methodology. The five parameters of Part A are described below:

I. Activity type

The first parameter of the observation scheme is open-ended, that is, no predetermined descriptors have to be checked off by the observer. Instead, each activity is separately described: e.g. drill, translation, singing, discussion, game, dictation, role-play, reading aloud. Frequently, activities consist of two or more episodes: e.g. (a) the teacher reads the words of a song aloud, (b) the students repeat the words after the teacher, (c) the students sing the song. These would be described as three separate episodes within one activity. The parameter 'activity type' was left open so that the scheme could accommodate the wide variety of activities occurring in various L2 programs at different age levels. As the research proceeds it is possible we will find that different programs may be characterized by the predominance of specific types of activity. Should this prove to be the case we intend to develop a superordinate classification scheme which would allow the reduction of possibly hundreds of separate activities into a limited number of representative types. One possible categorization is suggested by the 'formal' and 'functional' distinction described by Stern (1981). Another could be based on a differentiation between 'authentic' and 'non-authentic' tasks (Breen 1982), authentic tasks being those which simulate real-life communicative situations.

II. Participant organization

This parameter describes three basic patterns of organization for classroom interactions: Is the teacher working with the whole class or not? Are the students divided into groups or are they engaged in individual seat work? If they are engaged in group work, how is it organized? The various subsections are as follows:

1. Whole class

(a) Teacher to student or class, and vice versa (one central activity led by the teacher is going on; the teacher interacts with the whole class and/or with individual students).

(b) Student to student, or student to class and vice versa (Students talk to each other, either as part of the lesson or as informal socializing; one central activity led by a student may be going on, e.g. a group of students act out a skit and the rest of the class is the audience).

(c) Choral work by students (The whole class or groups participate in the choral work, repeating a model provided by the textbook or teacher).

2. Group work

(a) Groups all work on the same task.

(b) Groups work on different tasks.

(Note: If possible, we indicate the number of groups and the number of students in each group. We also indicate whether the teacher or the students specify the activities and the procedures, and the extent to which the teacher monitors group work).

3. Group and individual work

   (a) Individual seat work (Students work on their own, all on the same task or on different tasks).

   (b) Group/individual work (Some students are involved in group work, others work on their own).

The above low-inference categories are descriptive of how the students are organized as participants in classroom interaction; however, the categories may also reflect different theoretical approaches to teaching. In the literature on communicative language teaching, for example, group work is considered to be an important factor in the development of 'fluency skills', or communicative competence (Brumfit 1981; Long, Leslie, McLean, and Castaños 1976). The reason for this claim is that teacher-centred approaches are thought to impose restrictions on the growth of students' productive ability. In classes dominated by the teacher, students spend most of their time responding to questions and rarely initiate speech. Moreover, student talk in teacher-centred classrooms is frequently limited to the production of isolated sentences which are assessed for their grammatical accuracy rather than for their communicative appropriateness or value. Because the emphasis in group interactions is more likely to be on the expression of meaning, and less likely to be on the linguistic accuracy of utterances, classes which can be shown to provide more group activities may affect the L2 development of learners in ways which are different from those that represent a teacher-centred 'lock-step' approach to instruction.

III. Content

The 'content' parameter describes the subject-matter of the activities; that is, what the teacher and the students are talking, reading, or writing about or what they are listening to. Three major content areas have been differentiated: Management, Language, and Other Topics. The rationale for these categories arises from current discussions of theoretical issues in first and second language acquisition, including theories of communicative competence, and also from a number of practical pedagogic concerns. The content categories are as follows:

1. Management
    - (a) Classroom procedures
    - (b) Disciplinary routines
2. Explicit focus on language
    - (a) Form
    - (b) Function
    - (c) Discourse
    - (d) Sociolinguistics
3. Other topics
    - (a) Narrow range of reference
    - (b) Limited range of reference
    - (c) Broad range of reference
4. Topic control
    - (a) Control by teacher
    - (b) Control shared by teacher and student
    - (c) Control by student

The first content category, Management, has been separated from the other content areas because it does not fall within the range of planned curriculum content, but arises from the needs of the classroom situation. Management exchanges are of particular interest in L2 learning because they often include examples of spontaneous communication within the context of an otherwise grammatically-oriented classroom (Brumfit 1976, Long 1983). Management also relates to authentic communication in that the giving and receiving of directives of a procedural or disciplinary nature represents an aspect of language use which is very common in the 'real world' outside the classroom.

The content areas Language and Other Topics reflect the distinction between first language acquisition in natural settings, and second language learning in the classroom. It has been repeatedly shown that in interactions with children acquiring their first language the focus is on the message being conveyed, and that the vast majority of corrections by caretakers refer to violations of meaning rather than of form (see Snow and Ferguson 1977 for a discussion of this issue). The focus in the L2 classroom, however, has typically been on the presentation of the language code and on the correction of formal errors, especially in programs based on the grammar-translation or the audiolingual approaches. In view of the often limited success of more traditional methods of L2 teaching and the claim that the process of L2 learning is in many ways similar to that of first language acquisition (Corder 1971, Richards 1973), it has been argued that L2 teaching methods should attempt to approximate the conditions under which young children learn their first language. The question of whether the primary focus of instruction should be on meaning or on code is one of the crucial issues in this debate.

'Explicit focus on language' and 'Other topics' are both divided into several subsections. With regard to explicit focus on language, 'form' refers to grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, 'function' to illocutionary acts such as requesting, apologizing, and explaining, 'discourse' to the way sentences combine into cohesive and coherent sequences, and 'sociolinguistics' to the features of utterances which make them appropriate to particular social contexts. These four categories have been derived from theories of communicative competence reflected in the work of Hymes (1972), Morrow (1977), Munby (1978), Wilkins (1976), Canale and Swain (1980) and others, and on the model of L2 proficiency proposed in the Year 1 Report of the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project. The assumption underlying the Language categories is that instruction which gives differential attention to these areas of competence may affect language learning in a variety of ways.

With respect to Other Topics, an attempt was made to find a small number of superordinate categories to represent the potentially vast number of topics which can arise in conversation. We tentatively suggest a tripartite system, i.e., topics of narrow, limited, and broad range of reference. Underlying this classification is a belief that the cognitive content of instruction may have an effect on L2 learning. Topics of narrow range refer to the immediate classroom environment, and to stereotyped exchanges such as 'Good morning' or 'How are you?' which have phatic value but little conceptual content. Included in this category are routine classroom references like establishing the date, day of the week, what kind of weather it is, etc., or the use of other information which is easily verifiable or recalled. Topics of limited range refer to information which goes slightly beyond the classroom while remaining conceptually limited. Examples would be routine social topics like movies, hobbies, and holidays; school topics including extracurricular activities; and topics which relate to the students' immediate personal and family affairs. Topics of broad range go well beyond the classroom and immediate family environment, and involve reference to controversial public issues, current world events, abstract ideas, and reflective personal information such as 'What do you like about living in Toronto?' It is often the case that when such topics are under discussion ideas do not come automatically but require some degree of soul-searching and originality. Communicative theorists believe that more time should be spent promoting realistic broad-range discussions in the L2 classroom, rather than confining students to the predictable routines of model dialogues and structural drills.

The final category relating to content is Topic Control, that is, who selects the topic that is being talked about: the teacher, the student, or both? Second language programs differ widely with regard to the behaviours included in this category. It has frequently been pointed out, for example, that the audiolingual method constitutes a strong claim about the role of the teacher in L2 education. In the literature on communicative language teaching, on the other hand, the teacher is not seen as an authority figure or director of the student's work, but more as a counsellor, resource person and guide. In a communicative curriculum such as the one proposed by Breen and Candlin (1980) the teacher and the students are seen as 'co-participants' and 'joint negotiators' of the teaching process, and the students actively participate in the selection of materials, topics and tasks. It is hoped that a close observation of classes which differ in terms of topic control, together with an analysis of classroom treatment and learning outcomes, will enable us to throw some light on the question of what constitutes the most effective balance between teacher and student roles in L2 education.

IV. Student modality

This section identifies the various skills which may be involved in a classroom activity. The focus is on the students, and the purpose is to discover whether they are listening, speaking, reading, or writing, or whether these skills are occurring in combination. A category 'other' is included to cover such activities as drawing, modelling, acting, or arranging classroom displays. We anticipate that a differential focus on the various skills and their combinations may directly affect the development of particular aspects of the learner's L2 competence.

V. Materials

This parameter introduces categories to describe the materials used in connection with classroom activities. In addition to the type of materials involved (written, audio, visual), consideration is given to the original source or purpose of the materials, and to the way in which they are used. In the case of written or audio texts, we note whether they are minimal in length (captions, isolated sentences, word lists) or extended (stories, dialogues, connected paragraphs). The categories for materials are as follows:

1. Type of materials
   - (a) Text
   - (b) Audio
   - (c) Visual
2. Length of text
   - (a) Minimal
   - (b) Extended
3. Source/purpose of materials
   - (a) Pedagogic
   - (b) Semi-pedagogic
   - (c) Non-pedagogic
4. Use of materials
   - (a) Highly controlled
   - (b) Semi-controlled
   - (c) Minimally controlled

The third category involves us in making a judgement about whether the materials were specifically designed for L2 teaching (i.e., pedagogic), or whether they were originally intended for some other purpose (non-pedagogic). Frequently, materials from outside the school environment are adapted for instructional purposes, hence the need for an intermediate category. A real newspaper or magazine used in the classroom in its original form would be an example of real-world, non-pedagogic, or 'other purpose' material. On the other hand, a simplified reader, or a textbook unit contrived to illustrate a particular grammatical point, would be an example of materials specifically designed to be used for L2 instruction. In between, there is a category of semi-pedagogic material which utilizes real-life objects and texts, but in a modified or simulated form. An example of this might be a series of pictures or headlines from real newspapers, presented in a textbook with accompanying captions and exercises, which make the material more appropriate for the needs of the L2 learner. Advocates of the communicative approach have claimed that 'authentic' materials are essential in order to prepare students for the kinds of discourse they will encounter outside the classroom (Breen 1982, Brumfit 1981, Phillips and Shettlesworth 1975). One of the questions we would like to investigate is the way in which classrooms actually differ in the repertoire of materials used, and how the differences may affect the type of L2 abilities that students acquire.

The final category in this section refers to the way in which the materials are used, as distinct from the type of materials they are. The use of materials in the classroom may be highly controlled, semi-controlled, or minimally controlled. For example, consider three situations in which students are being asked comprehension questions based on a reading passage or picture. In the first situation the discourse may be highly controlled in that the questions and answers adhere quite closely to the text. In the second situation the discourse is semi-controlled, i.e., it extends occasionally beyond the restrictions imposed by the textbook. In the third situation the textbook simply provides the starting-point, and the ensuing conversation ranges widely over a number of topics which emerge spontaneously from the contributions of the students. It has been suggested, as a general principle, that a flexible treatment of materials, particularly texts, will enable students to develop their fluency, to "do many things which are not entirely predictable ... but which will indicate that their natural language learning capacities are being exercised and encouraged" (Brumfit 1981: 48). This statement appears to be inherently plausible, but we need more information about specific degrees of control and the effect that they might have on learning outcomes.

Part B: Communicative Features

The second part of the COLT observation scheme consists of an analysis of the communicative features occurring within each activity. As in the case of the categories of Part A, the communicative features have been motivated by numerous discussions in the current literature concerning communicative competence, communicative language teaching, and first and second language acquisition. So far, the following seven communicative features have been isolated:

I. Use of target language
II. Information gap
III. Sustained speech
IV. Reaction to code or message
V. Incorporation of preceding utterances
VI. Discourse initiation
VII. Relative restriction of linguistic form

All the features are coded for teachers and students, with the exception of discourse initiation and relative restriction of linguistic form, which are coded for students only. A discussion of the seven features follows:

I. Use of target language

This communicative feature is designed to measure the extent to which the target language is used in the classroom. It is based upon the obvious assumption -- not necessarily evident in all teaching methods -- that in order for a second language to be acquired it must be used by the students. This feature is covered by two categories in the coding scheme: 'Ll' refers to use of the first language, and 'L2' refers to use of the second, or target, language.

II. Information gap

This communicative feature refers to the extent to which the information requested and/or exchanged is unpredictable, i.e., not known in advance. Theories about the nature of communication emphasize that a high degree of unpredictability is characteristic of natural language use (Breen and Candlin 1980, Morrow 1981, Widdowson 1978, Canale 1983). In other words, communication must have a purpose — the giving, receiving, or requesting of information. It is not surprising that if the information requested is already known in advance, as is often the case in L2 classrooms, the motivation to communicate tends to be rather weak.

Although studies of first language acquisition have shown that there is a high level of predictability in many interactions between caretakers and children in the early stages (MacLure and French 1981), the information gap increases rapidly as language proficiency develops. In contrast, it appears that many L2 classroom interactions, even at the intermediate and advanced levels, are marked by an absence of real information gap. Students may perceive very little reason to listen carefully or to think about what they are saying when the main purpose of the exercise is to display their knowledge of grammar without consideration of the message being conveyed (cf. Mehan 1979). It follows, then, that one of the aims of communicative language teaching is to engage learners in activities where the message is reasonably unpredictable, in order to develop information processing skills in the target language from the earliest possible stage (cf. Johnson 1982).

The categories designed to capture this feature in the COLT scheme are the following:

1. Requesting information
   (a) Pseudo-requests (The speaker already possesses the information requested).
   (b) Genuine requests (The information requested is not known in advance).
2. Giving information
   (a) Relatively predictable (The message is easily anticipated in that there is a very limited

range of information that can be given. In the case of responses, only one answer is possible semantically, although there may be different correct grammatical realizations).

(b) Relatively unpredictable (The message is not easily anticipated in that there is a wide range of information that can be given. If a number of responses are possible, they provide different information).

III. Sustained speech

This communicative feature is intended to measure the extent to which speakers engage in extended discourse, or restrict their utterances to a minimal length of one sentence, clause or word. The rationale for this feature is primarily pedagogic. Although communication outside the classroom consists of minimal as well as sustained discourse, L2 classrooms often restrict the length of the learner's output to one sentence or less, and rarely provide opportunities for more extended speech (McEwen 1976, Bialystok et al. 1979, Mitchell et al. 1981). If practice with normally sustained discourse is considered to be important for the development of fluent speaking and listening skills, then it is necessary for the teacher to create situations where such practice can take place. The categories designed to measure this feature are:

1. Ultra-minimal (utterances which consist of one word — coded for student speech only).
2. Minimal (utterances which consist of one clause or sentence — for the teacher, one-word utterances are coded as minimal).
3. Sustained speech (utterances which are longer than one sentence, or which consist of at least two main clauses).

IV. Reaction to code or message

The fourth feature coded in Part B is closely related to the 'content' parameter of Part A -- the point at issue being whether the purpose of an exchange is to focus on the language code (i.e., grammatical correctness) or on the message, or meaning, being conveyed. Research has shown that in first language acquisition attention is focussed on the meaning rather than on the well-formedness of utterances (Snow and Ferguson 1977, de Villiers and de Villiers 1979, Wells 1981). Moreover, it appears that when children are acquiring their first language, correction of the code tends to confuse rather than help the learner (Brown 1980, McNeill 1966). In the L2 literature, it has been suggested that greater opportunities to focus on meaning will help the learner approximate first language acquisition conditions, and may lead to similar success (Macnamara 1973). At present, this feature is covered by a single category, 'Explicit code reaction', defined as 'A correction or other explicit statement which draws attention to the linguistic incorrectness of an utterance'. Further categories may be added as a result of information obtained during the piloting of the observation scheme.

V. Incorporation of preceding utterances

In conversation there are many ways in which participants may react to each other's contributions. One person may add a comment, or elaborate on a preceding utterance. Another may ask a related question, or perhaps there may be no reaction at all. Some studies of first language acquisition have suggested that expansions of a child's utterance which add or request additional information and in which somewhat novel forms are used tend to enhance the development of the child's linguistic competence (Cross 1978, de Villiers and de Villiers 1979, Ellis and Wells 1980, Wells, Montgomery, and MacLure 1979, Wells 1981). Generally speaking, these studies suggest that "the best environment for learning language contains a rich variety of sentences closely tied to what the child currently produces" (de Villiers and de Villiers 1979: 109). It seems reasonable to suppose that the same principle may apply in L2 learning.

To allow coding for a limited selection of reactions to preceding utterances, six categories have been established. These are ordered according to their potential for stimulating further topic-related discourse, as follows:

1. No incorporation: No feedback or reaction is given.
2. Repetition: Full or partial repetition of previous utterance/s.
3. Paraphrase: Completion and/or reformulation of previous utterance/s.
4. Comment: Positive or negative comment (not correction) on previous utterance/s.
5. Expansion: Extension of the content of preceding utterance/s through the addition of related information.
6. Elaboration: Requests for further information related to the subject matter of the preceding utterance/s.

VI. Discourse initiation

In first language communication among adult speakers as well as between children and adults, interactants generally have equality in discourse roles and rights, that is, they may not only respond to elicitations but they may also spontaneously initiate talk. From an early age, children begin to engage in complex patterns of turn-taking behaviour. It has been noted that in many mother/child interactions it is the child who initiates the exchanges, and the mother -- the 'teacher' as it were -- who responds (cf. MacLure and French 1981). These self-initiations are a gamble on the part of the child, an exploration of different linguistic means to negotiate meaning. Thus children create an opportunity to test their own hypotheses about the language by forcing their interactants to provide them with feedback and further input.

In many L2 classrooms the discourse roles of the learners seem to be the reverse of their counterparts outside the classroom. The classroom appears to be an environment which requires far more elicited than self-initiated talk, thus restricting the purposes for which language can be used. It follows that another principle of communicative language teaching is that students should be encouraged to initiate discourse themselves, instead of always having the role of respondent to questions imposed on them. To measure the frequency of self-initiated turns by students in different types of classroom, the category 'Discourse initiation' has been included in the coding scheme.

VII. Relative restriction of linguistic form

In mother tongue communication speakers use a wide variety of linguistic forms to express the meanings they wish to convey. Apart from sociolinguistic constraints imposed, for example, by the situation or by the relative status of the interactants, the grammatical structures and semantic choices are virtually unrestricted. The same lack of restriction is evident in the speech of children acquiring their first language. As indicated earlier, children experiment with language, try out their own strategies for communication and -- as their systematic errors reveal -- develop and test hypotheses about the language being learned. This constant process of meaning negotiation and hypothesis testing appears to be a crucial factor in first language acquisition.

By contrast, L2 learners are typically expected to mimic specific grammatical patterns in repetition or substition drills, and are rarely encouraged to experiment or to use language freely. Often the fear is that creative, uncontrolled language use will lead to many errors which might then prove difficult to eradicate. The literature on communicative language teaching emphasizes the need for activities in which learners can practise getting a message across with whatever resources happen to be available, thus developing the type of skill which is referred to as 'strategic competence' (Canale and Swain 1980). As in mother tongue acquisition errors are viewed positively, and are considered to be a necessary step in the active process of hypothesis formation and gradual approximation to the target language: "The student must be allowed to grope, to play around with the language, to internalize it by using it and in using it to make mistakes" (Brumfit 1981: 49). As with all the communicative features, however, it remains an empirical question what techniques are pedagogically most effective in a given classroom.

To permit an investigation of the effect of different degrees of restriction on the development of L2 proficiency, three subcategories have been proposed:

1. Restricted use: The production or manipulation of one specific form is expected, as in a transformation or substitution drill.
2. Limited restriction: There is a choice of more than one linguistic form but the range is very narrow, e.g. responses to Yes/No questions, statements about the date, time of day, etc.
3. Unrestricted use: There is no expectation of any particular linguistic form, as in free conversation, oral reports, or personal diary writing.

Coding Procedures

Two sets of coding procedures have been developed: one for the activity level analysis (Part A) and one for the exchange level analysis (Part B).

All coding in Part A is done in real time by two observers who are present in the classroom during the observation period. The activities are timed, and the starting time for each activity is entered in the left-hand margin of the coding form. In addition to a written description of the type of activity (e.g. drill, dialogue repetition, conversation, etc.), the observers place a check mark in the appropriate boxes under each of the four major headings: participant organization, content, student modality, and materials. In the course of a single activity, several subsections may be marked. For example, under the category 'participant organization' there may be instances of student-to-student interaction, teacher-to-student interaction, and teacher-to-class interaction. In cases like this, check marks are placed in the appropriate boxes for each of these participant interaction types, and a circle is drawn round the check mark in the box which represents the primary focus or predominant feature of the activity. This procedure is followed when coding all the Part A categories.

Part B coding is performed subsequent to the lesson, and is based on an audio-recording of each of the classes observed. A time-sampling procedure within activity types is followed. Coding starts at the beginning of each activity for one minute and is resumed after a two-minute interval. During the one-minute coding periods, the frequency of occurrence of each sub-category of the communicative features is recorded by two coders. For an example of how the coding is performed, consider the following interaction between a teacher and two students which occurred within a one-minute coding period:

	Utterance	Communicative features
T:	What's the date today?	L2/pseudo-request/minimal speech
S_1:	April 15th.	L2/predictable information/ultra-minimal speech/limited form
T:	Good.	L2/comment/minimal speech
T:	What's the date today?	L2/pseudo-request/minimal speech

S_2:	April 15th.	L2/predictable information/ultra-minimal speech/limited form
T:	Good.	L2/comment/minimal speech

T:	Good.	L2/comment/minimal speech

Consider now the following interaction between a teacher and a student which was coded somewhat differently:

	Utterance	Communicative features
T:	What did you do on the weekend?	L2/genuine request/minimal speech
S:	I went to see a movie.	L2/ giving unpredictable information/ minimal speech/unrestricted form
T:	That's interesting. What did you see?	L2/comment/elaboration (genuine request for information)/sustained speech
S:	E.T. I really liked it. He's so cute.	L2/giving unpredictable information/sustained speech/ unrestricted form
T:	Yes, I saw it too and really liked it. Did anyone else see it?	L2/comment/expansion/elaboration (genuine request for information)/ sustained speech.

It will readily be seen that the first example represents a stereotyped routine marked by pseudo-requests, predictable responses, and minimal speech patterns, while the second is much closer to natural language behaviour, and includes genuine requests, unpredictable responses, and a reasonable amount of sustained speech.

The intention is that the coding procedures for Part A and Part B should permit the investigators to provide a detailed description of the type of activities that are taking place in L2 classes, together with a characterization of these activities in terms of a wide range of linguistic-communicative and pedagogic factors that are thought to influence L2 learning.

A final comment regarding the reliability of the coding procedures is necessary before we discuss some of the data. We have already mentioned that there are both high and low inference categories in this scheme. However, the majority of our categories, particularly in Part B, are of the high inference type. One criticism that has been raised with respect to the use of such categories is that they involve a high degree of subjective judgement on the part of the coder. While this has to be admitted, it is also the case that many of the most interesting aspects of language learning are not directly observable. One way of compensating for the lack of objective criteria inherent in the use of high inference categories is to ensure that high levels of inter-observer reliability are obtained. Although reliability will not be statistically calculated until the pilot phase is completed, it appears so far that we have been able to achieve high levels of agreement for both Part A and Part B of the coding scheme.

Report on Some Preliminary Data Analysis

During the development of the observation scheme we were able to collect and partially analyze some observational data from French (FSL) and English as a second language (ESL) classes at two different grade levels, and these are the data that we will be discussing in the present section (see Appendix D:3).

The pre-pilot data come from one class of adult ESL learners and one class of adolescent (grade 6) FSL learners. We selected these two classes because they had been described as representing two distinct approaches to L2 instruction. The FSL class reflected a more traditional structure-based approach to L2 teaching (i.e. the audio-lingual method) and the ESL class represented a communicative approach. Because learners in these classes differed in terms of age, language of instruction, motivation for learning the L2, time spent in the classroom, and native language background, it would not be possible to make direct comparisons between the groups regarding the relationship between instructional input and learning outcomes. The value of looking at these two classes at this particular stage in our research was to determine whether the observation scheme was capable of describing features of interactional behaviour in two classes which were thought to represent two distinct approaches to L2 instruction, and furthermore, whether it was able to specify in precise terms what those differences might be.

When we compare the features coded for Part A in both classes, we find that there were both similarities and differences. The participant organization in both classes was primarily teacher-centred, although there were some instances of student-to-student interaction in each class. The content in both classes consisted primarily of a focus on language. However, the FSL class focussed primarily on the formal features of the target language (particularly vocabulary and pronunciation), while the ESL class covered instruction not only of the formal features, but also of some discourse and sociolinguistic features. In terms of the range of reference in subject matter, the FSL class tended to be limited in range, whereas the ESL class had instances of both limited and broad ranges of reference. The student modality for each class covered listening, speaking, and reading, with writing receiving limited attention during the time observed in the FSL class, and no time during the observational period in the ESL class. The materials were primarily pedagogic in both classes, but the use of materials in the ESL class ranged from highly controlled to minimally controlled, while the use of materials in the FSL class was highly controlled throughout the observation period.

In summarizing the results of the activity level analysis, it would appear that although there were some differences, they were quite minimal. If we look at the exchange level of analysis, however, some interesting differences both in terms of teachers' verbal input and learners' verbal output begin to emerge.

In terms of the first communicative feature, L2 use, the target language was used all the time by teachers and students in both classes, with the exception of one or two utterances in the first language in the FSL class. In terms of the second communicative feature, information gap, the FSL teacher asked primarily pseudo-questions and students gave only predictable responses, thus making the information gap very low in this class. In the ESL class, however, there was a great deal of giving of unpredictable information on the part of the teacher, as well as the use of both genuine and pseudo-requests. Also, students in this class gave both predictable and unpredictable responses (particularly in the last few minutes of coding), thus making the information gap between students and teacher somewhat higher. When looking at the instances of sustained speech, we were able to see that the FSL teacher's speech was minimal most of the time, consisting of no more than one phrase or sentence in each exchange, and the students' output was either minimal or ultra-minimal, consisting of no more than one word or sentence in each exchange. In the ESL class the teacher's speech was primarily sustained and the students' speech varied between sustained and minimal, although it was primarily minimal. Both teachers reacted to the code in these classes, although the tendency to react to meaning became more of a focus later in the ESL class. Reaction to code or message on the part of students was not evident in either class, although later in the ESL class there were clear examples of students reacting to message rather than to form in conversational interaction.

Turning to the incorporation of utterances, we found that in the FSL class there were no elaborations on the part of the teacher, whose reactions consisted primarily of comments and repetitions. In the ESL class, however, elaborations and expansions were far more numerous than repetitions, paraphrases, and comments. Elaborations did not occur on the part of students in either class during the coding period, although there were also instances of this later on in the ESL class. The categories concerning the extent to which students were restricted in their use of linguistic forms revealed that while the FSL learners were restricted at all times, the ESL learners, although restricted in some cases, also produced language which was both limited and unrestricted in terms of form. The discourse initiation category revealed that although no students in the FSL class spoke unless asked a question by the teacher, there were some instances of spontaneous self-initiations on the part of students in the ESL class. These self-initiations increased as the class continued beyond the coding period.

To summarize, it would appear that even with data that represent only one and a half hours of coding, differences are beginning to emerge between these two classes at the exchange level of analysis. The teachers' input in the ESL class appears to be more varied, containing a higher level of information gap, more instances of sustained speech, and a greater number of expansions and elaborations than the FSL teacher's speech. Similarly, the students' output in the ESL class appears to be more varied, containing fewer restrictions in terms of form, a higher level of information gap, and more instances of sustained speech than the FSL data. It should be emphasized that the aim of the pre-pilot phase was to test the ability of the observation scheme to differentiate between various methodological approaches. It was not part of our purpose at this stage to draw conclusions about the value of one method rather than another. In particular, it is not possible to evaluate the various approaches to ESL and FSL instruction without reference to a variety of sociological and administrative factors which it is not our intention to discuss in the present chapter.

The Validation Study

The preliminary data analysis suggested that the COLT scheme is capable of revealing significant differences in communicative orientation between French and English as a second language classes at two different grade levels. However, more data from a larger number of classes was required to ensure that the COLT scheme can effectively describe instructional differences in a variety of L2 programs. For this reason, a validation study was undertaken from January 25 to May 30 1983 in a number of L2 classes in the Toronto area. The sample included 13 classes at the grade 7 level, broken down as follows: four core French classes, one history and one language arts class in both the French immersion and extended French programs,[3] and five ESL classes. Each class was visited twice by two observers. The observation period per visit varied from 30 to 100 minutes depending on the length of the lessons. Wherever possible, the classes were recorded on audiotape.

Since data collection has only recently been completed, a detailed analysis of the data has not yet been carried out. At present, the observers are involved in coding the communicative features of the oral verbal interaction of the classes observed (Part B of the observation scheme). It is expected that this phase will be completed by the middle of July.

The first step after each classroom observation was the assignment of a global Communicative Orientation score (CO-score) to the whole class immediately after the observation period. For this purpose the teacher and student verbal behaviour is rated on a seven-point scale to indicate how communicative their language use is. Criteria for these ratings are, for example, use of L2, reaction to message and not to code, high information gap, and unrestricted use of form (See Appendix D:4 for CO-score form). After the teacher and student verbal behaviour has been rated, the ratings for the teacher are summed and divided by 30, the highest possible score. Similarly, the ratings for student verbal behaviour are summed and divided by the maximum score of 42. The mean of the two scores represents the global Communicative Orientation score. Although no inter-rater reliabilities have yet been calculated, the ratings of both observers were usually identical or extremely close.

CO-scores are available for 11 of the 13 classes visited (See Table IV: 1). For those classes in which a great deal of individual or group work took place during the observation period, it proved difficult to assign a global score. These classes are marked with a dash in Table IV:1. A number of ways of dealing with classes in which individual or group work predominates are presently under discussion. As can be seen from Table IV: 1, CO-scores differ more across programs than within programs. An ANOVA to examine whether these differences reach statistical significance will be conducted.

Subsequent analysis of the observation data will include a summary and descriptive analysis of Part A categories for each of the four L2 programs and, with respect to Part B, an analysis of the frequency of occurrence of each communicative feature as well as an analysis of distinctive patterns of co-occurrence of the communicative features. These analyses may be conducted for the lesson as a whole and/or by activity. It may be the case that different activities can be characterised by different profiles of communicative features.

In addition to classroom observation, a questionnaire was administered to the teachers involved in the validation study (See Appendix D:5). This questionnaire was developed to obtain necessary background information on the students observed, and to provide a more detailed picture of the teaching and learning activities in each class. A number of revisions to the questionnaire are expected as the work proceeds.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have described a classroom observation scheme which incorporates an activity level and an exchange level of analysis and which provides a framework for comparing various features of classroom discourse with patterns of natural language use outside the classroom. It is hoped that the COLT scheme will enable us to clarify a number of issues which relate to the current debate concerning the respective advantages of more innovative 'communicative' approaches versus more traditional structure-based approaches to L2 education.

Since it was not possible to define communicative language teaching in general global terms we compiled a list of indicators of communicative language behaviour, each of which can be separately observed and quantified. The communicative orientation of classrooms is therefore not characterized by a single feature, but by a cluster of interrelated dimensions. A combination of scores for the various categories will enable us to place each class at some point on a communicative continuum or scale. It is hypothesized that different types of communicative orientation will differentially affect the development of proficiency in a second language. We must emphasize, however, that we are making no claim at this stage about what type of communicative orientation might be pedagogically most expedient in a given instructional setting.

We have described the categories of the observation scheme and discussed a preliminary data analysis. This analysis suggests that the COLT scheme is capable of revealing significant differences in communicative orientation between French and English as second language classes at two different grade levels. However, more data from a larger number of classes is required to ensure that the COLT scheme can effectively describe instructional differences in a variety of L2 programs. For this reason, a validation study was undertaken in a number of L2 classes in the Toronto area.

The validation study will provide the investigators not only with a larger data base, but also with data from classes of learners who are all of the same age, and who are learning a second language in a variety of instructional settings.

Once the pilot data are analyzed, it will be possible to begin the next phase of the research in which we intend to compare classes to determine the relationship between type of instruction and proficiency in various aspects of L2 skills.

V ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

Objectives

The general purpose of the environmental studies undertaken during the second year of the Project is to improve our understanding of the impact of sociological and psychological factors on the development of bilingual proficiency, especially among Canada's non-English background children. In order to achieve this goal we are carrying out one large-scale sociolinguistic study and two ethnolinguistic studies. These studies are being conducted in three linguistic communities. The sociolinguistic study, involving language use and language attitude surveys as well as proficiency measures, is being carried out among Portuguese-speaking students enrolled in several of Toronto's English language elementary schools. One ethnolinguistic study is being carried out in the Chinese community in Toronto, and the other focusses on one of Toronto's French language elementary schools.

The overall purpose of the study being carried out among Portuguese-speaking students is to examine the relationships which exist between three aspects of the students' language behaviour: their patterns of use of Portuguese and English, their attitudes to Portuguese and English and to speakers of these two languages, and several aspects of their proficiency in Portuguese and English. The Portuguese study has both a theoretical and descriptive orientation and, it should be added, a practical or policy/decision-making one. The theoretical orientation will aim at improving our understanding of the contributions of environmental factors to the development of bilingual proficiency; the descriptive orientation will aim at providing data on one of Canada's ethnic minorities which has been minimally researched; and the policy orientation will aim at identifying those aspects of the results of the sociolinguistic surveys and proficiency surveys which have a bearing on the formulation of educational policies.

The purpose of the ethnolinguistic studies is to gather fine-grained data on patterns of first and second (and third) language use, attitudes to these languages and to speakers of each language. Although both ethnographic studies were primarily designed to make their own contribution to the theory of ethnolinguistics, their descriptive dimension is also important since they provide information on the Chinese and French-speaking communities which has never been gathered before in Canada, and because they will also serve as a guide for the designing of future sociolinguistic surveys to be carried out in these two communities in the next phase of our Project (cf. Chapter VI).

1. The Language Use Patterns, Language Attitudes, and Bilingual Proficiency of Portuguese Canadian Children in Toronto

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the bilingual proficiency of children from an important language minority group in Toronto and to determine the links with proficiency of family background, language use patterns, and language attitudes.

The Portuguese community was selected for a number of reasons. They form a sizeable group in Canada (1971 census estimate: 96,875) and in Toronto in particular (1971 census estimate: 36,960). Moreover, a number of neighbourhood schools have sizeable proportions of Portuguese students and offer Portuguese classes as part of the heritage language program. Statistics regarding socioeconomic status show that social mobility is relatively low for this group as compared to other minority groups. Furthermore, the multiethnic survey conducted by Berry, Kalin, and Taylor (1977) showed that Canadians of diverse ethnic backgrounds view Portuguese Canadians as significantly less Canadian, less wealthy, and less similar to themselves in comparison to both English and French Canadians (see Table V:1). Finally, since French is so similar to their native tongue, Portuguese speakers should exhibit favourable attitudes toward French and should learn French as a school subject quite easily.

Since the children were voluntary recruits from Portuguese language classes, they represent a sample of Portuguese background children which can be expected to be relatively favourably oriented toward Portuguese. Moreover, the fact that direct attitude measures, rather than indirect attitude measures, are employed in the study can also be expected to bias the findings toward responses more favourable to minority language varieties (e.g. see Bourhis in press; Carranza 1982; Lambert 1967; Ryan, Giles, and Sebastian 1982).

Children in grade 7 are the focus of this study for several reasons. First, these youngsters are just beginning to be able to make their own choices regarding language use patterns and to evolve a sense of language/ethnic identity (Barker 1947; Day 1982; Lambert 1967; Ryan 1981). Up to this age, their language proficiency largely depends upon their family language background, the language use patterns around them, and the language attitudes of those around them. During the subsequent few years, they will be making important attitude-based decisions which will affect their further development of language proficiency and their future language use patterns. As bilingual adolescents, they will be facing choices in regard to their ethnocultural identity (Brody 1968; Derbyshire 1968; Lambert 1967).

Specific Goals of the Study

1. To describe the relative proficiency attained in English and Portuguese for these children:
    (a) Grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic aspects of proficiency for each language;

- (b) Relation between self-ratings of proficiency and objective measures within each language;
- (c) Relation between proficiency in the two languages, in terms of correlations and also specific subgroups (i.e., Low Portuguese-Low English; Low Portuguese-High English; High Portuguese-Low English; High Portuguese-High English);

2. To examine the relationships between family background (parental language background and socioeconomic status), age on arrival, and proficiency in the two languages;

3. To describe language use patterns across different contextual domains with different interlocutors:
   - (a) Relative frequency of English versus Portuguese use in different contexts;
   - (b) Relationships between family background and frequency of English versus Portuguese use across domains;

4. To describe attitudes toward English and Portuguese and perceived relative vitality of Portuguese Canadians in Toronto:
   - (a) The attitudes toward English and Portuguese (instrumental, integrative, preference, importance for identity);
   - (b) Perceived relative vitality of English and Portuguese;
   - (c) Correlational relationships among the different aspects of language attitudes within and across languages;

5. To examine the relationship of language use patterns to proficiency (both objective and self-rated);

6. To examine the relationships of language attitudes and perceived vitality with proficiency;

7. To examine the relationships of family background with language use and language attitudes;

8. To characterize the interrelationships among these variables, in particular the extent to which family background, language use patterns, and language attitudes can predict language proficiency;

9. To pilot some items concerning French language attitudes and proficiency and to examine their links with the English and Portuguese data.

Method

Subjects

The sample for the study consists of 191 grade 7 students (including 108 girls and 83 boys) enrolled in Portuguese heritage language classes in seven schools of the Metropolitan Separate School Board in the City of Toronto. Each of these schools offers a 30-minute daily program of Portuguese language and culture that is integrated into the school day. While the program is optional, it appears that the great majority of students of Portuguese background at the grade 7 level were enrolled in the program at the time of data collection.

The schools are located in an inner city area bounded roughly by Queen Street in the south and Dupont Street on the north, and by Spadina and Dufferin Streets on the east and west respectively. The area has a large concentration of residents of Portuguese background.

Participation in the study was voluntary, dependent on the students obtaining letters of permission from parents, and not all students in each heritage language class obtained permission to take part. Table V:2 shows the distribution of the sample across schools, and the proportion of students enrolled in the grade 7 Portuguese heritage language program at each school who participated in the study (on average 50 per cent).

Also indicated in the table is the overall proportion of students attending each school in the relevant school year (1982-83) who were of Portuguese home background. Schools were selected that were relatively large in size (ranging from approximately 540-900 students), and that had at least two Portuguese heritage language classes at the grade 7 level. The different overall proportions of Portuguese background students in each school selected (from 60-90 per cent) reflects the range 55 - 95 per cent) in the Board's 13 schools which offer an integrated Portuguese heritage language program.

Of the total sample of 191 students, 25 (or about 13 per cent) were receiving special education. These students were not evenly distributed across schools in the sample. In two schools, the principals did not wish special education students to be tested, and one school had no special education program at the grade 7 level. The proportion of special education students in the sample from the remaining four schools is thus considerably higher (26 per cent).

Materials

Written tests of Portuguese and English grammar, discourse, and sociolinguistics, and oral tests in both languages were developed for the study. In addition an existing oral test of Portuguese grammar and discourse was slightly adapted for use in the Toronto context. All tests were designed to fit the framework of traits and methods used in the proficiency study (see Figure III:1). In addition to the language proficiency tests, two questionnaires were designed: one concerning language use and the other, language attitudes. There follows a description of the various instruments, each of which was designed to be administered in a half-hour period. Copies of tests and questionnaires are appended to the report (see Appendix E).[4]

1. Written grammar tests. Two multiple-choice written grammar tests were constructed for the grade 7 level: one in Portuguese and one in English. In the 50-item

Portuguese grammar test, the students are required to select one grammatically correct sentence from each set of three sentences. The test assesses knowledge of a variety of grammatical features in Portuguese, including in particular syntax (word order), use of prepositions, verb tenses, and verb agreement. The English grammar test consists of three parts containing items similar in nature to a number of standardized tests of English language skills designed for native speakers. (An earlier version of the English grammar test, similar in format to the Portuguese grammar test, proved when piloted to be much too easy for the target population.) In the first part of the test, which contains 15 items, the students have to indicate which sentence in each set of three contains a grammatical error, or if there is no error. In part 2, the students read ten independent sentences in each of which three segments have been underlined. Their task is to indicate which underlined portion of the sentence, if any, is incorrect. Both parts 1 and 2 of the test focus on a variety of grammatical features in English, including verb agreement, past tense forms, and prepositions. Part 3 is concerned with syntax. It contains ten items involving groups of words (e.g. "were playing on the street"). The students are required to indicate whether the group of words is a complete sentence, or whether one of two choices (e.g. "the children" or "very happily") should be added to make a complete sentence.

2. Written discourse tests. Multiple-choice tests similar to the multiple-choice discourse test designed in French for the proficiency study in the immersion program setting (see Year 1 Report, pages 11 and B27-B37) were constructed in Portuguese and in English to assess proficiency in recognizing coherent and cohesive text in the two languages. Some of the items from the original French test were adapted for use in either the English or Portuguese version; other items in each test are new. What is required of the students is that they identify the one sentence in a set of three which best fits the gap left in a short paragraph. Written instructions for each test are

provided in both English and Portuguese to ensure that no student is impeded by lack of understanding of the unusual task to be performed.

3. Written sociolinguistic tests. Sensitivity to register differences in the two languages was assessed by means of written composition tests of a similar nature to the French sociolinguistic written production test used in the proficiency study (see Year 1 Report, pages 15-16 and B53-B57). In the Portuguese test, students are required to write a formal letter of request to the Department of Tourism in Portugal requesting information about taking a holiday in Portugal. Fifteen minutes are provided in which to write the letter. Students then have a short (ten-minute) note to write, in which they play the role of a mother who is annoyed with her son/daughter instructing them to tidy up. In the English test, ten minutes are provided to write a formal letter of request to Environment Canada for information about pollution to be used in a class project. A note on the blackboard from the classroom teacher to a student who has neglected doing his/her homework is the next task to be performed (five minutes). A concluding section of the English test requires students to rewrite an underlined portion in each of six paragraphs so that the register fits more appropriately with the passage as a whole.

4. Oral interviews. For each language, an individual oral interview was used to assess students' oral proficiency in grammar and discourse. For the Portuguese interview, the IDEA Oral Language Proficiency Test (Portuguese) (1981) was used. It consists of a controlled set of verbal and visual stimuli provided by the interviewer, to which the student responds. These responses are then assessed for correctness, appropriateness, and completeness. The interviewer checks responses on a test sheet as correct or incorrect. The test includes items that focus on syntax, morphology (with a particular emphasis on verbs), lexis, and phonology. Three items also require discourse skills: (a) the production of two logical conclusions to a story provided by the interviewer; (b) a picture description task, and (c) a story-retelling task. A tape-

recording of the interview was made so that some detailed scoring, particularly of discourse phenomena, can be done from the tapes. For the English interview, the original intention had been to use an English version of the IDEA test. However, like the written grammar test in English, this test proved when piloted to be too easy for the students. A new English interview was therefore constructed which involved more sophisticated conversational interaction between the interviewer and student. Questions are nonetheless structured to permit assessment of control of verbs and prepositions, phonology, and vocabulary in English. Discourse tasks involve the telling of a story from a set of picture cartoons and the description of a telephone.

5. Sociolinguistic oral production tests. Two sociolinguistic oral production tests, one in Portuguese and one in English, were constructed, based on the oral test designed in French for the proficiency study in the immersion context (see Year 1 Report, pages 12, 14, 15 and B14-B15). In each test, the student is shown a set of slides representing different social contexts. Each situation is accompanied by a taped description in the target language, and the student is required to produce the appropriate language in response to the slide and description. The students' responses are tape-recorded for subsequent scoring. Three sociolinguistic functions (request, complaint, and making an offer) are to be performed at two levels of formality (formal and informal). The purpose of the two tests is to determine the extent to which the students are able to adjust register appropriately in each of their two languages.

6. Language use questionnaire. The language use questionnaire consists of 56 items concerning family background, language use, and language proficiency. Family background questions focus on place of birth, location of schools, parental birthplaces, parental language background, parental education, and parental occupation. Language use questions concern the extent to which Portuguese and English are used with family members as well as in school, in the community, and in leisure activities. For the

traditional modalities (speaking, understanding, writing, and reading), students rate their proficiency for English, Portuguese, and any other language they know (frequently French, which is given 20-40 minutes of instructional time per day). This questionnaire, available in English and Portuguese, was adapted from the language use questionnaire used previously by Mougeon with Franco-Ontarian students (Mougeon, Brent Palmer, Bélanger, and Cichocki 1982).

7. Language attitude questionnaire. The language attitude questionnaire is composed of 53 items, focussing upon five issues. Following Gardner and Lambert (1972), instrumental and integrative attitudes are distinguished and assessed for English and Portuguese. As well, direct preference questions (English versus Portuguese) are asked regarding which language is preferred in general and in specific contexts (e.g. expressing feelings or talking with friends). Four items address the role of the two languages in the respondents' ethnic identity. Adapted from the Parental Encouragement scale of Jakobovits (1970), the parental attitude towards language education scale assesses the perceived importance given by parents to the respondent's general education and to his/her learning of English and Portuguese in particular. Attitudes towards Portuguese dialects (i.e., mainland versus Azorean), language mixing, and code switching are addressed by eight items. Eleven items from the Subjective Vitality Questionnaire (Bourhis, Giles, and Rosenthal 1981) which seemed appropriate for Grade 7 students were adapted for the relevant target groups (Portuguese Canadians, English Canadians, and French Canadians). Four items assess cultural assimilation in terms of an orientation to stay in Canada or return to Portugal and freedom of expression of opinions. Attitudes toward French are assessed in the parts of the questionnaire where the general lack of competence in that language does not make the item irrelevant (i.e., instrumental attitude, parental attitude toward language education, preferred language for school instruction). The questionnaire is available in both English and Portuguese.

Design

All students in the sample completed the language use and language attitude questionnaires. Students from each school were divided randomly into three groups (ensuring that one group, to be orally tested, always contained at least 12 students from each school). One group completed the written grammar tests in both languages, one group completed the written discourse tests, and the third group completed the written sociolinguistic tests. Students in the discourse group, which was the group with 12 students from each school, were also given all the oral tests. Table V:3 shows the number of students in the sample who completed each test.

Procedure

Each school was visited for a four-to-five day period by two researchers. The administration of the questionnaires and written tests took place in class on each of four days during the half-hour period devoted to the Portuguese heritage language program. On the first day, the language use questionnaire was administered, followed the next day by the language attitude questionnaire. Students were given the English version of the questionnaires, but the Portuguese version was available for any student who was more comfortable in that language. Help was provided to students, where necessary, with spelling of place-names, etc. On the third day, all English tests were administered simultaneously to subgroups of students in the class. And on the fourth day, the same subgroups received the Portuguese version of the written test that they had completed the day before (be it grammar, discourse, or sociolinguistics).

Oral interviews took place in a small room made available in the school throughout the school day, except during the heritage language class period. The twelve students writing the discourse multiple choice tests were interviewed on one day in Portuguese (by a male native speaker of Portuguese) and on a subsequent day in English (by a female native speaker of English). All interviews were tape-recorded. In one school, owing to a theft of recording equipment and slide projector along with seven recordings of students' interviews in English that were locked in a room in the school, a second female interviewer redid the seven interviews with these students two weeks later, and also carried out the English interviews with the remaining five students in that school.

Current Status of Study

The data collection phase of the study has now been completed, and computer data entry and coding of the questionnaires has begun. During the summer, scoring of oral tests and sociolinguistic written tests in English and Portuguese and analysis of multiple-choice tests will take place. When scoring is complete, the analysis of questionnaire results in relation to proficiency scores in the two languages will be carried out.

2. Ethnolinguistic Studies

Summary: The Chinese Community/School Study

The following is a summary of an ongoing study which is reported in more detail in Appendix F.

Introduction

This exploratory study is a six-month post-doctoral research project designed to provide an environmental and sociocultural context for a planned, more focussed investigation of Chinese-Canadian children's language acquisition at home and school. The objectives of the study are:

1. To find out how English and Chinese (its various dialects) are used in the Toronto Chinese community (at home and in public), in the schools, and in the Chinese heritage language programs;
2. To explore the Chinese community's attitudes toward the maintenance of Chinese language and culture in Canada and toward Chinese/heritage education in the community and schools;
3. To examine how these attitudes influence the initiation, design, and implementation of heritage language programs and how these programs, in turn, affect the language use and maintenance efforts in the community itself; and
4. To investigate the interactional effect of these various elements on the actual language use in the community and to provide insights into how such community language use may influence the development of bilingual proficiency in Chinese children.

Methodology

The present study is a multi-level ethnography (Ogbu 1981; Guthrie in press). Participant observation (Spradley 1980) and ethnographic interviews (Spradley 1979), the two standard and central techniques of ethnographic fieldwork, have been conducted in the Toronto Chinese community and schools since January 1983. Archival research was also undertaken to supplement the above activities. Existing books, newspaper and magazine articles, and research reports on the Chinese-Canadian issues and situations were read to prepare the researcher's entry into the fieldsite and to guide the selection of key informants and events for observations and interviews.

To date, eight key-informant interviews have been conducted, each lasting from one hour to two or three hours, with community social workers, leaders, parents, and school personnel. These interviews were taped and transcribed. Numerous informal, non-taped interviews have also been conducted with merchants, community members at large, school principals, heritage language instructors, community and school program administrators, regular school teachers, parents, and students. A semi-structured interview schedule was developed in April 1983 based on the questions, concerns, and folk terminologies culled from the initial phase of fieldwork. The interview schedule has been used with 18 Chinese-Canadian parents (often both father and mother were present at the interview and were counted as one). A sample of parents from a variety of socio-economic, linguistic, cultural, and immigration backgrounds is currently being identified, regardless of whether their children are in the Chinese heritage language programs.

Participant observation has also been carried out in a variety of settings: at various community centres, schools, classrooms, homes, churches, markets, restaurants, and special Chinese cultural events. Most of the observation has been of the informal non-obtrusive sort. In these observations, fieldnotes were taken following the observation. In the classrooms and in the schools, however, observation was much more formal.

Fieldnotes were taken on the spot, and then rewritten into clear prose as soon as possible after leaving the field. So far, 21 heritage language classes have been observed --some more than once. In addition, one grade 3 class in a Chinatown public school was observed for two full days. A grade 4 class in another school, with a smaller concentration of Chinese students and more students from middle class and professional families, will be observed for two days. On these full-day observations, the children are followed throughout the school day and all their classes, including the Chinese lessons, are experienced by the participant observer.

At present, contacts are being made and plans are underway to interview a few leading educators in private Chinese schools in the community and, if possible, to observe these schools, visit more heritage language classes, and talk to the teachers and students. (Many of the after-hours Chinese heritage teachers have their own children in the program.) Chinese heritage curriculum development committee meetings will also be attended. In short, the fieldwork is just about to enter an intensive stage now that much of the groundwork has been accomplished.

Emerging Themes/Hypotheses

The following are a set of interrelated themes and hypotheses that have emerged from the fieldword and preliminary analysis of the data:

I. Interethnic relations between the Chinese and the dominant English society are crucial in determining the language maintenance orientation of the Chinese community. In the past when integration and assimilation was denied to Chinese in Canada, Chinese immigrants could only look toward their homeland or look within the segregated Chinese community for personal and political expression. A Chinese world with parallel social organizations was created on a hostile soil, and the Chinese language and cultural values were well maintained in the community out of sheer necessity. As soon as assimilation became a possibility, many second-generation Chinese became well-acculturated and ceased to have anything to do with the Chinese community (here class and English proficiency factors come into play). However, when encountering barriers toward further structural incorporation in their climb upwards, these well-acculturated Chinese may realize that they are not allowed full participation in the dominant society. They are invariably made aware once again of their own ethnic and colour difference from the ruling élite. With such awakening often comes a renewed commitment to one's own linguistic and cultural heritage. In brief, then, given the Chinese immigrants' strong integration and assimilation motives (perhaps coming from the deep-rooted Confucian belief in harmony), if the door of integration both for cultural assimilation and structural incorporation is fully open, the language maintenance efforts in the Chinese community will not be as necessary. However, if Canada truly becomes a culturally and structurally pluralistic society where different ethnic/cultural groups coexist on an equal basis, Chinese language and culture maintenance will be a natural development, for most Chinese take great pride in their 5000-year-old cultural heritage.

The present interethnic relationship between the Chinese and the dominant society engenders the following hypotheses with regard to social class differences related to attitudes toward Chinese language maintenance.

II. There exists a class difference in the attitudes toward Chinese language and cultural maintenance. Professional and middle class Chinese who have enjoyed a measure of cultural and structural integration into the dominant society do not seem to regard Chinese proficiency as important for their children, unless they are personally involved in the Chinese ethnic economy either as entrepreneurs or socio-cultural brokers of the two worlds, or unless they still have strong family ties with Hong Kong, China, or Taiwan. These people tend to live in non-Chinese neighbourhoods and send their children to all-English schools (they did so in Hong Kong and will continue to do so in Canada).

Given the multilingual/multicultural backgrounds of many of these professional and middle-class Chinese families, language development is strongly encouraged. These parents generally consider "the more languages, the better" for their children, as long as these languages prove to be useful for their future success in career and life. In other words, if proficiency in Chinese is well rewarded in this society, these parents will educate and encourage their young to become fully proficient in Chinese. At present, they seem to place utmost importance on English almost to the exclusion of Chinese, and given the rising status of French in this society, they may tend to view French as more important than their heritage language. However, as commented on earlier, if they discover their upward mobility is limited and thwarted after a certain stage, they will actively encourage their children's development of Chinese as a fallback. In our interviews, certain parents have indicated such awareness of limited opportunities in this white world and have subsequently worked toward inculcating Chinese language, history, and culture in their children.

In the case of working class families where often one or both parents are non- or limited-English-speaking, Chinese language maintenance is crucial to meaningful family communication and interaction. Many of these parents still live very much in an encapsulated Chinese environment and do not see any possibility of breaking through the barriers of language and culture into the dominant society. Their livelihood tends to depend entirely on the Chinese ethnic economy also. Naturally they perceive the importance of their children's learning the mother tongue and traditional Chinese values. These are the parents who have been most actively involved in fighting for public-supported Chinese heritage classes. Through the assistance of community social workers and positive experiences in activism, many of these parents have developed a radical consciousness of their own rights and powers and have learned to organize for strength and impact. The danger lies in these parents' abdicating their own home language maintenance efforts and their relying exclusively on the schools and public institutions to teach their children Chinese and Chinese values, partly because of their trust in educational authorities, partly out of their own lack of ability, time, and energy (since most of these parents have to work long hours to subsist).

III. The existence of a strong ethnic community is crucial to the maintenance of the Chinese language in Toronto. As long as non- or limited-English-speaking Chinese immigrants continue to move into Toronto from various parts of the world and as long as a segment of the Chinese community continues to rely on the ethnic economy for their livelihood, the Chinatowns will prosper. Chinatowns do provide a very strong environmental support for children who live or go to schools in the area to develop their Chinese speaking, reading, and writing abilities. If their parents, teachers, and peers place high enough value on Chinese proficiency, these children will have little difficulty becoming fully bilingual in Chinese and English. In other words, full proficiency in Chinese will depend on the legitimacy of Chinese in the school curriculum and in the social, political, and economic arena.

To sum up, these themes/hypotheses suggest that any model of bilingual proficiency development must take into account the wider socio-political, economic, and historical contexts outside of the classrooms and schools.

Summary: The Social Meaning of French and English in a Toronto French-Language School

The following is a summary of an interim report which may be found attached as Appendix G.

Objectives and background

The major objective of this research is to discover the social factors that influence the use of French and English in a French-language elementary school in Toronto. Patterns of language use are linked to proficiency in the following ways:

1. Social organization constrains access to first- and second- language input.
2. Language use forms part of behaviour conventions in social interaction; thus speaking a language can constitute a claim to access to social networks and social situations. The consequences of language choice can therefore be social in nature: one has to continue to act in other ways considered appropriate for speakers of a particular language, and accept that certain opportunities are gained and others lost as a result of that choice. This influences language attitudes and motivations for learning or maintaining first and second languages.
3. Language is learned in interpersonal interaction. People who interact frequently establish conventions of behaviour, including conventions of language use, that reflect their shared experience. In a social institution like a school, peer groups can exert a strong influence on language use patterns over time. For members of these groups, proficiency means the ability to use language in a way meaningful to other group members, and in such a way as to accomplish personal conversational goals (e.g. forming friendships, getting a point across to a teacher, arguing persuasively, etc.).

The objectives of the research can thus be broken down into sub-headings:

1. to discover the pattern of use of French and English as they correlate with different social situations (defined as the co-occurrence of activity, participants, and locale);
2. to discover the consequences of language choice for the accomplishment of conversational goals, including access to participation in social networks and social situations;
3. to link these social interactional factors to students' ability to speak French and English. This case study will permit a close look at the social constitution of proficiency, especially as it relates to sociolinguistic competence. It will thus provide some background and comparison to the studies of sociolinguistic aspects of proficiency.

Methodology

This is a case study; methods used include participant observation, ethnographic interviews, questionnaires, and analysis of tape-recorded natural language use.

One French-language elementary school was chosen from the largest category of Toronto French-language schools (Catholic elementary schools). Participant observation was begun in January 1983, and will continue until the end of the school year. Observation was conducted in six different classes at the school (out of a total of thirteen) until April, when observation was confined to the senior class, a mixed class of seventh and eighth graders. This class was chosen for several reasons:

1. the strength of peer groups at this age;
2. the importance of language in the upcoming choice of secondary school (there is only one French-language high school in Toronto, which is far from these students' homes and not Catholic). This choice makes language and identity an object of conscious reflection;

3. the ability of older students to articulate impressions of and reactions to language choice;
4. the focus on this age level of other studies in the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project.

Ethnographic interviews are being conducted with a ten per cent sample of parents reflecting the demographic constitution of the school, with teachers, and with administrators. Informal interviews have been conducted with some students, and a class discussion on the project has been held with the seventh and eighth graders. Topics covered include: reasons for choice of elementary and secondary schools, family history, patterns of languages use outside school, patterns of participation in social and cultural activities and institutions and their relationship to language choice and ethnic identity, the role of the French-language school in Toronto (and in Ontario), and the importance of French, English, and other languages.

A questionnaire covering many of the same topics and including a demographic survey has been distributed to all the families of the school. To date 101 (out of 227) have been returned, or 44.5 per cent of the total.

In order to establish patterns of language use at school among students in the senior class, eight students were asked to participate in tape-recording of students' natural language. Four of the eight were chosen as representative of the students' major ethnolinguistic backgrounds, and four were chosen at random as a check. Each of the eight wore a tape-recorder all day at school for two days. These tapes are currently being transcribed; the resulting corpus will be analyzed in July 1983.

Preliminary findings

The preliminary findings of this project fall into two major categories, findings concerning the social organization of language use, and findings concerning language use *per se*.

The social organization of language use at the school is intimately linked to the heterogeneity of the school population (see Appendix G, section 2.1, for detailed background and examples). This heterogeneity has many sources, which will not be discussed here. Its most important aspects are as follows:

1. Students are of numerous ethnolinguistic origins, and arrive at school with varying degrees of proficiency in both French and English;
2. All the teachers are francophones, although many are also fluent in English;
3. Parents are of varying ethnolinguistic backgrounds, and there is a high proportion of linguistically mixed marriages;
4. There are therefore several motives for choosing a French-language school. Three major groups consist of: (a) anglophone families, or families in which one parent is francophone, who are committed to bilingualism for ideological, instrumental, and (in the case of francophones in mixed marriages) emotional reasons; (b) francophones, principally Québécois and Europeans, who are concerned for the preservation of French language, culture, and identity in the minority setting of Toronto; and (c) speakers of third languages who are committed to bilingualism both because of the instrumental advantages it potentially represents and because they feel it represents personal improvement in culture and cognitive capacity (these reasons are also shared to some extent by the first group);
5. This variety is reflected in different patterns of language use and instruction about language at home. Thus many students speak only English outside school, some speak both French and English, some only French, some another language or

languages. Most speak more than one language outside school, especially if they have siblings in the same school and/or see school friends outside school;

6. Because most students live principally in English outside school, English tends to be the language of communication among students (with the reservations outlined below).

As a result there is tension between the school on the one hand, represented by the teachers, the principal, and even active members of the PTA (API), whose vision of the school is that it should function totally in French, and on the other hand the students, who mainly prefer to speak English to each other. It can be hypothesized that using both French and English more accurately reflects the nature of the students' experience than the exclusive use of one or the other language. Indeed, many students claim to think of themselves as bilingual, or bilingual but English dominant. Knowledge of English is crucial to entry into the larger peer networks at school, while French of course is crucial to success at school.

Language use patterns essentially reflect the picture of language choice presented above. Language choice is not usually categorical; in other words, it is not always the case that students and teachers speak only French or only English. It is very common for both groups to use words from one language when speaking the other. This is principally confined to terms or words unknown in the language being spoken, or most commonly heard in the other language (e.g. "I don't have any devoirs"; "Il est un peu eccentric"). In this case the 'borrowed' item is not linguistically integrated into the matrix language.

Another common pattern is the use of English for side comments to French conversation, for example for hedging or pausing ("Uh, gimme a chance"; "Wait a minute"; "J'ai écrit la question, or whatever, pis la réponse") or for emphasis ("J'attends une minute, all right?; "Come on, you guys!").

There is a pattern of code-switching, in the stricter sense of switches by one speaker from turn-to-turn in a conversation, from one utterance to the next within a turn, and within an utterance. Tape-recorded data will have to be added to observed data for a full pattern to emerge, but it appears that code-switching occurs most often between students when they are in the classroom, especially in the presence (however distant) of a teacher, or it sometimes characterizes the speech of students who are talking to teachers outside the strict question-response classroom mode.

There is a pattern of bilingual punning or wordplay, which is primarily done by the students (see examples, Appendix G, section 2.2).

Finally, there are linguistic phenomena in the French of many of these students which may reflect influence from English, limited opportunities to speak French, and/or conventions of usage proper only to this group. (This is true of students who have been together at this school for a long time, and who are relatively isolated from other children of their age, since children in their neighbourhoods attend other schools.) These include vocabulary gaps (filled by borrowing and loan translations, or calques), regularization (especially of inflection paradigms), and an intonation pattern that is characteristic. Further analysis will be necessary to determine the extent to which these last two patterns are in fact the result of English influence.

Conclusions

While some data remains to be collected, and analyses of questionnaire and tape-recorded data remain to be done, it is possible to define some preliminary conclusions regarding the social meaning of French and English in this school.

First, it appears to be the case that the heterogeneity of the school population and the prevalence of English outside the classroom contribute to a definition of French as a school language to be learned for largely instrumental reasons (to get a good job, to be a good Canadian, to be a better person, to promote metacognitive awareness). For a minority of students, French is the language of their social identity. There is therefore a gap between the interests of these two groups of students. It is largely up to the francophones to react, which they do by assimilating, or by forming their own small circles. Occasionally, a francophone becomes a group leader and imposes French on the group due to his or her inability to speak English. These different reactions seem to be due to a combination of factors: age on arrival, sex, personality, and the structure of peer networks at the time of arrival.

The strength of peer networks is reflected in the shared norms of language choice and language use among the majority of the students, including code-switching, bilingual punning, regularization in French, and the students' intonation patterns in French.

One important question that remains to be explored is whether the group norms described above constitute the extent of students' proficiency in French and English, or whether it is their preferred mode of expression when they are, in essence, being themselves. Their usage will thus be compared across contexts ranging from formal oral expositions to reading, classroom talk, and the playground, in order to determine the extent and nature of linguistic variation across contexts.

The group norms or conventions of speaking reflect not only the experience of being bilingual (code-switching, bilingual punning), but also of being bilingual in an English-dominant context where the opportunities to speak French are in fact limited (regularization, borrowing, calques).

Bilingual proficiency here, then, is intimately tied to participation in social networks and social activities which contribute to the definition of social identity and conventions of language use. In order to understand what proficiency is at this school, it is important to establish the social meaning of French and English and to discover the social consequences of language choice in this setting.

VI FUTURE STUDIES

Proficiency

As indicated in Chapter III, we will continue to explore the structure of the second language scores of grade 6 French immersion students obtained in our large-scale proficiency study. Although evidence for the distinction among traits is demonstrated by the native speaker/non-native speaker comparisons, the factor analytic results to date provide evidence of only two factors. The first appears to represent a global proficiency factor; the second reflects to a large extent the sorts of competence learned in school, that is, competence in written language rather than spoken language, emphasizing grammar and discourse rather than sociolinguistic aspects.

One might argue that, as an exercise in construct validity, these results are somewhat inconclusive. However, as an indication of the structure of the second language competence of immersion students, the factors which have emerged are entirely consistent with our knowledge of immersion students' language use patterns in and out of school. Indeed, the results indicate quite dramatically the role of the learning environment on the nature of language proficiency. For this reason, future studies probing the nature of second language and bilingual proficiency will be conducted within the context of an extensive examination of (a) environmental factors, as in the Portuguese study currently underway (Chapter V), and (b) treatment conditions.

With respect to the data already collected, in addition to the continued investigation of the factor structure, we intend to investigate the extent to which the global factor may be accounted for by vocabulary knowledge and/or pronunciation. Neither of these aspects of language proficiency was directly considered in the scores that we used. However, in scoring the data, we were constantly aware of the difficulty of ignoring these pervasive aspects of language proficiency. Thus in Year 3, the proficiency data will be scored for vocabulary use, and the discourse and sociolinguistic oral data will be scored for pronunciation in the same way (four-point scale) as the oral grammar data already have been.

Typical procedures for scoring vocabulary involve counts of types (e.g. the number of different verbs used in a text) and tokens (e.g. the total number of verbs used in a text), and then calculating a type/token ratio. Such a ratio, although able to indicate the variation of vocabulary usage when the token size is large enough, is subject to considerable distortion when the number of tokens is small. Another procedure proposed by Harley (1982) which has proved to be highly sensitive (Lapkin and Swain 1983, Lévy 1983) is to credit the student with a point each time a vocabulary item is used which is not listed as basic French vocabulary in le français fondamental. A vocabulary measure of this kind will be applied to the written and oral data.

Treatment Studies

1. The (French Immersion) Proficiency Study Expanded Year3/4

As indicated in the large-scale proficiency study described in Chapter III and briefly mentioned above, the hypothesized traits of grammatical, sociolinguistic, and discourse competence are not distinguishable among grade 6 French immersion students using factor analytic techniques. However, in comparing the immersion students with native speakers, it was noted that immersion students perform similarly to native speakers on measures designed to elicit discourse performance, but not on those measures designed to elicit sociolinguistic and grammatical performance. The differential performance of native and non-native speakers suggests the existence of the hypothesized traits.

Diagnostic studies of immersion speech at the upper elementary level (e.g. Harley and Swain 1978), and of the compositions written by grade 6 immersion students in the context of this Project (see Appendix C), show that the L2 production of the immersion students has systematic non-target features which can be at least partly attributed to transfer from their mother tongue. One explanation given for the continued non-nativelike French production of the immersion students is that they lack social contact with native speakers (Schumann 1978). This is not easy to remedy in the Ontario school context. Another explanation is that the L2 input that they have been receiving is not sufficiently geared to their linguistic needs (see e.g. Genesee 1978). It has been hypothesized (Harley 1982, Swain 1982) that the immersion students would benefit from (a) more focussed L2 input in those areas of the L2 where they do not yet make native-like distinctions (whether grammatical or sociolinguistic), and (b) opportunities for more meaningful use of such distinctions via carefully planned communicative activities.

The proposed study involves extensive observation of grade 6 immersion students' in-school language learning activities in Year 3, and an investigation of the effect of specific learning activities in Year 4.

In Year 3, using the COLT observation scheme as the basic data collection tool, we propose to observe a random sample of 15 grade 6 immersion classes in Toronto and Ottawa. Observations will be made of the portion of the school day conducted in French, as well as the English language arts portion of the day. Each class will be observed at least twice a month in October, November, February, March, and May. These data will either complement or negate our interpretation of the factor analytic structure of the proficiency data gathered. Specifically, it is hypothesized that students will be provided with little exposure to sociolinguistic variation in written or oral language, that instructional time will be primarily oriented to written discourse, and that students will be provided with relatively little opportunity to use the target language in other than the written mode.

On the basis of the observational data, which will provide a detailed account of the language learning environment of the immersion students, and the already existing data on the second language competence of the immersion students, a set of experimental teaching materials will be constructed in Year 4. Topics might include 'Time and Tense in French', 'How to Use French Prepositions', 'Social Roles and Register'. A sample of 20 grade 6 classes will be selected and pretested using tests from the Year 1 proficiency study. Half the classes selected on a random basis will be assigned to the materials and the remaining classes will receive no treatment. Posttesting to determine the effect of the materials will take place three months later.

2. Testing a Variable Focus Curriculum Model in the ESL Classroom — Year 3/4

A second language curriculum model designed to ensure maximum practical usefulness will possess a number of general characteristics: (a) The model will be based on a coherent theoretical framework, but it will be flexible enough to provide for a wide variety of pedagogic needs. (b) The basic orientation of the model will be consistent with current theories of first and second language acquisition and with communicative language teaching. (c) At the same time, the model should provide some means of bridging the gap between earlier classroom practices based on a structural approach to language, and those which have been inspired by the more recent communicative methodology.

Much recent discussion has tended to present an over-simplified, dichotomous view of second language teaching methods. Thus, it is assumed that in formal language teaching the emphasis is on the study and practice of discrete isolated elements of language structure, with the purpose of providing the student with a systematic knowledge of the linguistic code, while the alternative is to teach language in context as a means of communication. In programs where an attempt is made to combine these two approaches, there is often no provision for an intermediate stage between the controlled manipulation of formal patterns and the full communicative use of language.

As an alternative to this simple dichotomous view, it has been suggested that all second language teaching programs should contain three components, each representing a different aspect or level of communicative competence (Allen 1980). The implication of this is that as teachers or course designers we can look at all the segments of a language training program from three different points of view. If we look at them from a grammatical perspective (communication level 1) we would focus primarily on the formal features of language, including pronunciation, sentence patterns, and vocabulary. If we look at the same segments from a discourse point of view (communication level 2) we would "seek to change the balance of priorities by placing emphasis on the meanings expressed or the functions performed through language" (Wilkins 1981: 83). Finally, if we look at the same segments from a sociolinguistic perspective (communication level 3) we would focus not on the grammatical or discourse features of language but on the ways in which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in a social, vocational, or academic context.

The various aspects of language proficiency represented by the three communication levels do not have to be acquired in a fixed order, and in fact we can usually assume that all three types of learning are taking place concurrently. However, it is always necessary for a teacher to decide on an appropriate order of presentation for the three types of classroom activity, given the needs of a particular group of students. One traditional type of instructional sequence, which we can refer to as the 'structural foundation model' of second language education, consists of a preliminary stage (communication level 1), an intermediate stage (communication level 2), and an advanced stage (communication level 3). It has been pointed out that a structural foundation approach has the advantage of ensuring that students acquire a sufficient knowledge of basic structures, vocabulary, and pronunciation before they embark on extensive practice at the discourse and sociolinguistic levels (Valdman 1980, Brumfit 1979, Paulston 1981). In recent years, however, there has been considerable criticism of the structural foundation approach because of its tendency to postpone the natural use of language to a comparatively late stage. It is possible that a more widely applicable model of L2 instruction would incorporate the three components that we have proposed, but would present them in the form of a cycle in such a way that grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic activities would interact with one another at all stages of the curriculum. Ultimately, in considering this type of 'variable focus' program, it would be necessary to determine the most effective combination of activities in order to meet the needs of different groups of learners in a variety of educational settings.

The proposed study is seen as contributing to the development of a variable focus model of second language education. Its purpose is to determine the relationship between the description of classroom activities and interactions, and student proficiency. A number of grade 7 ESL classes in the Toronto area will be selected so as to represent various points on a structural-instrumental continuum of teaching methods. These classes will be observed, using the COLT observation schedule developed during Years 1-2. Pre- and post-testing will be carried out to determine the relationship between type of instruction and proficiency in various aspects of L2 skills. For this purpose we will use tests developed during Years 1-2, supplemented and modified as necessary to meet the needs of grade 7 ESL students. In addition to the observation schedule, teacher questionnaires will be used to obtain background information on students and to provide a more detailed picture of the teaching and learning activities in the program. A language contact questionnaire will be administered to check the extent of previous ESL training undergone by students, and to determine whether particular aspects of L2 proficiency benefit more or less from informal exposure outside the classroom.

The prediction is that those classrooms which incorporate a broad range of activities, content, and communicative features will lead to the best results in developing all aspects of proficiency in the target language. Those classrooms which tend to be restricted to particular activities and communicative features will lead to a lack of balance in the development of various aspects of second language skills.

3. An Experiment in Teacher Training Year 4/5

In recent years there has been increasing interest in methods of teacher training (Strevens 1977, Joyce and Weil 1980, Calderón 1982, Stern 1983). Training is a highly complex activity which may include presentation of theory, observation of actual classes or specially prepared demonstrations, practice in the preparation of lesson plans for various contingencies, micro-teaching, peer-group teaching, and a variety of postmortem criticisms and discussions.

Calderón (1982) suggests that Krashen's distinction between learning and acquisition applies not only to second language students but also to the process of teacher training. In a training context, learning refers to the discussion of theoretical principles, and acquisition refers to the obtaining of practical experience. As Calderón points out, because most teacher training preservice programs are learning oriented, insufficient acquisition of classroom procedures occurs. On the other hand, teacher inservice programs tend to concentrate on practical teaching and pay too little attention to theory. Successful teacher training at both the preservice and the inservice levels requires a careful balance of activities in which learning and acquisition processes both make an appropriate contribution.

In a recent analysis of one-day inservice teacher training sessions in California, Joyce and Showers show that a training mode which emphasizes the presentation of theory to the exclusion of practice and feedback results in very slight skill improvement on the part of trainees, and a minimal level of transfer into the workplace. However, a training mode which emphasizes practice and feedback related to an appropriate theory component and which is based on the use of coaching teams can result in 90 per cent skill improvement by trainees, and a 75-100 per cent level of transfer into the workplace (Joyce and Showers 1981).

In the coaching-team method trainees are organized into groups, each group having a coach, or team leader. This approach has a number of advantages over more traditional methods: the team format provides opportunities for mutual reflection and the sharing of ideas; the team members provide feedback to one another about teaching methods and materials; and the team leader can provide valuable practical support for the trainee during practice teaching. Although a number of studies on coaching have indicated that the method leads to positive changes in classroom behaviour and to a high level of transfer into the workplace, further research is needed in order to identify the critical elements of the training process in general, and of the coaching method in particular (Wald 1980, Joyce and Showers 1982, Gower 1981).

The aim of the Year 4/5 study is to build on the results of the Year 1-4 research and to try to determine whether, and to what extent, teacher behaviour can be modified. A number of teachers will be selected who represent different views on the nature of language and how it should be taught. All the teachers will be interviewed, and their classroom practices studied using the COLT observation schedule. Following the interviews and observation, the teachers will be randomly assigned to two groups. One group will attend a series of one-day inservice training sessions in which the relationship between type of instruction and proficiency will be demonstrated, and appropriate teaching methods practised. The inservice sessions will contain a suitable balance of theory and practice, and the training method will be based on coaching teams. The other group will receive no such training. Both groups will be observed again in their own classrooms to determine whether the training sessions have been followed by any observable changes in teacher behaviour. Teachers will be interviewed, and a questionnaire administered, to obtain their views on the success or otherwise of the training program.

The prediction is that a carefully planned series of inservice training sessions, incorporating a suitable balance between theory and practice, with the emphasis on coaching, feedback, and peer-group discussions, will lead to positive changes in teacher behaviour and to a high level of transfer into the workplace.

Environmental Studies

1. The Relationship of Language Use and Attitudes to Bilingual Proficiency in the Chinese Community — Year 3/4

We have decided to extend our research on the role of environmental factors to the Chinese community for the following reasons. Toronto's Chinese rank among the largest ethnic communities of the city. Canada's Chinese population has not been extensively studied with respect to mother tongue maintenance, proficiency in Chinese and English, and attitudes to Chinese, English, and French. As far as attitudes to French are concerned, it will be interesting to see whether due to their non-European and non-Latin background, the Chinese are less favourable to French than the Portuguese. The ethnolinguistic study of the Chinese community carried out during Year 2 (see Appendix F) has prepared the ground for a thorough investigation of patterns of Chinese and English use, of attitudes to these languages, and of proficiency in each language. For instance, the ethnolinguistic study has revealed that it will be necessary to focus on at least two dialects of Chinese (Mandarin and Cantonese) and on three Chinese groups (mainland Chinese, Taiwanese, and Hong Kong Chinese).

The study to be carried out in the Chinese community will largely replicate the one that was carried out in the Portuguese community in Year 2 (see Chapter V). Hence, two questionnaire surveys will be conducted among grade 7 students of Chinese background enrolled in English language schools in Toronto. One survey will investigate the students' patterns of Chinese and English use and the other will investigate the students' attitudes to these languages, to French, and to speakers of Chinese, English, and French. The students who participate in the two sociolinguistic surveys will be tested on various aspects of spoken and written proficiency in Chinese and English. Statistical analyses of the surveys and proficiency data (e.g. regression analysis) will be performed so as to identify the relationship between students' language attitudes and language use patterns and specific aspects of proficiency in Chinese and English.

2. The Relationship of Language Use and Attitudes to Bilingual Proficiency in the French Community

Year 3/4

The French-speaking minority in Ontario stands apart from other non English-speaking minorities who reside in the province. It is largely Canadian-born and has access to several key institutions which function in French (e.g. schools, national media, government offices, etc.). Such institutions are likely to have an impact on this minority's patterns of language use and language attitudes and, perhaps more important, on the students' proficiency in French and English. Hence the potential interest of a comparison of Franco-Ontarians with the Portuguese and Chinese-speaking minorities. Another characteristic of the French-speaking minority in Ontario that makes it interesting from our perspective is that students have various educational options which may affect their patterns of use of French and English, their attitudes to French and

English, and their proficiency in the two languages. Franco-Ontarians may avail themselves of any of the following four options: (1) education in French in a French language school, (2) education in French in an English language school (typically in a French immersion program), (3) education in both French and English (typically in a mixed French language and English language school), and (4) education in English in a regular English language school. In the proposed study, we intend to determine the impact of two of these four educational options (options 1 and 4) on the language behaviour and attitudes of the francophone students. Extensive sociolinguistic variability research on the spoken French of Franco-Ontarian adolescents enrolled in French language schools (Mougeon, Beniak, and Canale forthcoming) has shown that these students differ widely among themselves in the extent to which they use French outside the school and consequently in the extent to which they develop their grammatical and sociolinguistic proficiencies in French. Thus we expect that although grammar, discourse, and sociolinguistic competence in French L2 did not emerge as separate factors in the Year 2 proficiency study (based on French immersion data), interstudent variation in language use, attitudes, and exposure in the Franco-Ontarian setting will lead to a finding of at least two traits in the proposed study. As with the Chinese study, an ethnolinguistic study conducted during Year 2 in one of Toronto's French language schools (see Appendix G) has paved the way for the proposed studies to be undertaken among school-aged Franco-Ontarians.

As in the case of the Portuguese and Chinese studies, the Franco-Ontarian studies will be carried out among grade 7 students. The two sub-populations which will be targeted are: (a) Franco-Ontarian students who are schooled in French and enrolled in French language schools, and (b) Franco-Ontarian students who are schooled in English and enrolled in English language schools. Within each of these populations, two surveys will be carried out: one will gather data on the students' patterns of use of French and

English, and the other will focus on the students' attitudes to these two languages and to their speakers. The surveys will be conducted in Toronto. The students who participate in the two sociolinguistic surveys will be tested on various aspects of speaking and writing proficiency in French and English as well as on certain aspects of non-language academic achievement. Statistical analyses of the surveys, proficiency, and achievement data (e.g. regression analysis) will be performed so as to identify the relationship between the students' language attitudes, language use, and academic achievement, and specific aspects of their proficiency in spoken and written French and English.

3. Synthesis of Environmental Studies — Year 5

During Year 5 of the Project we will synthesize the findings of the three sets of environmental studies (Portuguese, Chinese, and Franco-Ontarian). We will also perform further analyses of our data suggested by the findings of our synthesis.

Among other things it will be interesting to compare the francophone students' English proficiency data with that gathered from the Chinese and Portuguese background students. A comparison of the English proficiency of francophone students enrolled in French language schools with the English proficiency of the Portuguese and Chinese students will have both theoretical and policy-related relevance.

4. Bilingual Proficiency and Academic Development -- The Home-School Connection — Years 3-5

In carrying out the study on sociolinguistic and attitudinal influences on the development of bilingual proficiency among Portuguese background children, we were struck by the number of these children who were receiving special education assistance. This raised the issue of why these children were experiencing learning problems and how their first and second language proficiencies were related to overall academic development. The current study is concerned with these issues to a certain extent insofar as it will relate the acquisition of context-embedded and context-reduced English and Portuguese proficiency to sociolinguistic and attitudinal factors. However, because of the unwillingness of some schools to allow special education students to participate in the study it is unclear to what extent such students will be represented in sufficient numbers to permit conclusions to be drawn with regard to the nature of their difficulties.

The proposed study focusses specifically on Portuguese-background students in junior kindergarten (four-year-olds), senior kindergarten (five-year-olds), grade 1 and grade 2 in order to investigate the interaction between educational treatment and what the minority child brings to the school. In this way we hope to explore some of the factors that appear to be associated with learning problems among this group of students. The overall design is cross-sectional longitudinal as outlined in Figure VI:1.

The initial Year 3 sample would comprise approximately 104 students across the four grade levels and over the three years would involve sufficient students in grade 1 (approximately 70 students allowing for attrition) and grade 2 (approximately 60 students) to permit factor analyses of proficiency measures to be carried out within these grade levels. Consistent with the theoretical conclusions to the Year 1/2 proficiency study (Chapter III), the design also allows us to investigate the development of proficiency in English and Portuguese as a function of home and instructional conditions.

The following types of measures will be administered at the four grade levels:

Junior Kindergarten:

(a) Behavioural/Learning Screening Measures: We are currently looking into the suitability of two sets of measures which have been developed or adapted specifically for Portuguese-background students, namely, the Teste de Prontidao para a Pré-Primaria, published by the Lesley College, Massachusetts, Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center (EDAC), and the Portuguese version of the Early Recognition Intervention Network (ERIN) Preschool Screening System developed by Peter and Marian Hainsworth.

(b) Tape recordings of children's spontaneous conversation in the home using the procedure developed by Roma Chumak on the basis of Gordon Wells' (1981) work (see Appendix H). Using a voice-activated AIWA micro-cassette recorder three hours of conversation will be taped four times during the year giving us a corpus of 12 hours per student. Depending on the resources available, it is possible that we may sample from this corpus rather than transcribing the 384 hours (32 x 12) and subjecting all of it to detailed analysis. Following Wells (1981) and Chumak (in preparation) our analytic focus will be on the quality and quantity of interaction (in the first and second language) that children experience with adults.

(c) Using a structured interview in English (if applicable) and Portuguese similar to that employed by Damico, Oller, and Storey (in press), we will attempt to identify potential 'pragmatic' language problems which their research suggests are distinguishable from syntactic/morphological inaccuracies and also more predictive of future learning problems.

(d) Children's understanding of the functions of written language and their awareness of literacy will be assessed by means of Marie Clay's (1981) Concepts about Print Test as used by Wells (1981). We will adapt the test for use with Portuguese-speaking children.

In addition to these measures the behaviour of target children will be observed and tape recorded in the JK classroom (using an adaptation of the COLT scheme). Parents will also be interviewed both about their children's language and literacy-related behaviour and about more general sociolinguistic and attitudinal issues.

Senior Kindergarten:

Essentially the same measures will be administered to the SK group in years 3 and 4. The differences will be that students' language interaction outside the school will be recorded only twice during the year (Fall and Spring) and the Escala de Comportamentos para Crianças (EDAC, Lesley College, Mass.) will be used in place of the preschool screening measures.

Grades 1 and 2:

The same procedures will be followed as for SK with the addition of formal measures of English reading skills. We will use both standardized measures as well as miscue analysis of oral reading in order to guard against assessing only test-taking skills. Teachers' ratings of students' academic progress will also be obtained. We will also explore children's acquisition of Portuguese literacy skills and the continued development of their oral Portuguese skills within the context of our model of language proficiency. The influence of heritage language teaching on the development of first language skills will also be assessed.

A large number of hypotheses could be generated for this study. However, our major hypothesis is that quality and quantity of home interaction and exposure to literacy (in Portuguese or English) will be strongly related to acquisition of context-reduced academic skills in school regardless of the proportion of English and Portuguese used in the home. Based on the preliminary findings of the Years 3 and 4 data collection, we will develop a model of bilingual proficiency for this particular acquisition context and test it by means of confirmatory factor analysis at the grade 1 and 2 levels in Year 5 after the three years of data collection have been completed.

Studies of Personal Learner Attributes

1. Individual and Social Determinants of Bilingual Proficiency

Year 3/4

We propose to continue to investigate the role of personal learner attributes in the L2 acquisition process by following up our study of Japanese temporary resident children in the Toronto area (Cummins et al. in press). The findings of this study suggested that attributes of the learner were differentially involved in the acquisition of different aspects of proficiency; specifically first language cognitive/academic skills were significantly related to L2 cognitive academic proficiency while first language interactional style was strongly correlated with a similar dimension in the second language. Ratings of childrens' personality by parents (on an introverted-extroverted dimension) were related to both first and second language interactional style. On a third dimension of L2 proficiency (conversational syntax), individual attributes were insignificant in accounting for variance compared to indices of exposure to and use of the L2 in the acquisition context.

This pattern of findings led us to suggest a speculative distinction between 'input-based' and 'attribute-based' L2 proficiency, the attribute-based proficiencies being interdependent or strongly related across languages as depicted in Figure VI:2. The original data from the Cummins et al. study has been further analyzed by Hulstijn (see Chapter III and Appendix B) and we propose to collect additional data from a similar sample to further explore the interactions between individual and environmental factors in L2 acquisition.

As a result of interest at the School of Supplementary Japanese Studies in Toronto in further investigating the maintenance of Japanese by temporary resident students we have the potential to collect data of specific concern to the Development of Bilingual

Proficiency Project in a very cost-effective manner. It is anticipated that the school will involve Dr. J. Cummins and Professor Kazuko Nakajima in advising on the assessment of Japanese and English skills of most of the 400 or so students from kindergarten through grade 12 in the school. Tests will include both written composition and reading (multiple-choice) tasks. The school will also facilitate the collection of both sociolinguistic and attitudinal background data on the students, including such variables as age on arrival and length of residence.

Thus, the Project has the opportunity to assist in developing English (L2) tasks in both context-reduced and context-embedded modes which are compatible with our theoretical model. A subsample of students from specified grades would be interviewed to assess context-embedded proficiency. The study would thus permit us to carry out three major functions:

(a) carry out confirmatory factor analysis of L2 proficiency components among a very different sample from the French immersion, francophone, Chinese and Portuguese students;

(b) compare the Portuguese, francophone, Chinese and Japanese samples with respect to the influence of sociolinguistic and attitudinal variables in second language acquisition and first language maintenance. For this reason grade 7 students will form the Japanese sample to be examined in this study;

(c) further investigate the interactive roles of age, exposure, and use of L2 in the acquisition process, thereby replicating and extending the findings of the Cummins et al. study.

2. Level and Structure of Oral L2 Proficiency among Early and Late Immersion Students

Year 3/4

In a number of Ontario school boards, early French immersion students, whose programs began in kindergarten or grade 1, have now reached the secondary grade levels, and comparisons with late immersion students, who began their intensive exposure to French in grades 6-8, have been made (e.g. Harley 1982, Lapkin and Swain 1983, Morrison, Pawley, and Bonyun 1982). A general finding has been that the early immersion students do not show strong advantages over the late immersion students in the productive use of French morphology and syntax. However, there are some indications that the early immersion students are nonetheless perceived by native French speakers as more competent users of the L2 than are late immersion students. In Harley's (1982) study, for example, the interviewers commented that they felt more at ease talking to early partial immersion students than they did to late immersion students.

The proposed study will provide an in-depth examination of various sets of oral data that have already been collected in order to determine whether there are specific ways in which early immersion students who have reached the grade 10 level display greater oral L2 proficiency than late immersion students at the same grade level. Particular attention will be paid to sociolinguistic competence and to the kinds of fluency and communicative style variables considered in the proficiency study by Hulstijn (see Appendix B). Hulstijn found inadequate variability in the data from younger children that he was examining to draw conclusions about some fluency variables. In the proposed study in the immersion context, however, it is anticipated that with a larger set of immersion data, and more data from each individual, this problem can be surmounted. As well as considering aspects of the speech of the L2 learners, the study will focus on features of the interviewers' speech (e.g. rate of speech, repairs) that can be associated with differential proficiency on the part of the interviewees.

In addition to examining the question of differences in proficiency level between early and late immersion students who began their immersion experience at different age levels, the study will focus on the issue of whether the structure of oral L2 proficiency in a group consisting of both early and late immersion students in grade 10 is different from that found in our Year 1/2 proficiency study, when the sample consisted of younger early immersion students in grade 6. We might predict, for example, that sociolinguistic competence will emerge as a separate factor for the older students partly because they are likely to be more aware at that age of the social function of language, and partly because the late immersion students will have had different L2 input in the context of their program, involving L2 texts which pay attention to formal register in French.

Data for the proposed study include oral interviews already conducted with 40 subjects: 20 late immersion students and 20 early immersion students at the grade 10 level. The interview schedule used was that described by Harley (1982), which contains some questions in common with the grammatical oral production test used with grade 6 early immersion students in our Year 1/2 proficiency study. Other questions eliciting narratives in the interview can be scored for discourse. Twelve early and 12 late immersion students also received a version of the sociolinguistic oral production test administered in the Year 1/2 proficiency study. The test had been modified and adapted for use with older students, including some new slides.

Redefinition/Refinement of Proficiency Model — Year 5

In addition to the studies continuing through Year 5, we intend to focus on the major task of analysis, synthesis, and interpretation of the cumulative set of data from disparate bilingual populations. The integration of findings from these populations will lead to a refinement and/or redefinition of our current working model of bilingual proficiency. As part of this redefinition/refinement process, we propose to hold a week-long working session with selected participants. The (maximum of 30) participants we envision will be scholars working in the field from different disciplinary backgrounds. The format we propose will be intensive feedback on written papers prepared by the Project staff.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Two types of appendix are referred to in this report. The designation Appendix File 1, 2, etc. indicates a paper that has been filed with the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council but is not included in the report itself. Other appendices, designated Appendix A, B, etc. are included in the report.

[2] In one situation where there were plural addressees shown on a slide, the distinction tu/vous was neutralized. For this situation, then, the maximum formality score was 5 rather than 6.

[3] Core French is the basic regular French program, in which French language is the subject of instruction. In Ontario, French is compulsory up to grade 9. The starting grade and the amount of instruction vary. (In Toronto, students now start in grade 4 with 40 minutes a day.)

Extended French involves the teaching of one or more other school subjects through the medium of French in addition to core French instruction.

In French immersion programs French is the language of instruction in all subject matter classes. At the primary level, the programs typically involve a half day of immersion in kindergarten followed by one or more years of total French instruction. At the earliest in grade 2, a daily period of English language arts is introduced, by grade 4 or 5 the proportion of the day in English may be increased to 50%.

[4] A transcript of the test tape of the English version of the sociolinguistic oral production test is included. The Portuguese taped version of the test (not included) was almost identical, although the slides for each test were not the same.

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Table III:1

Scoring Schedule

Test	Raters	Date
Grammatical written production	1,2,3,4	June-September 1982
Sociolinguistic oral production	1,4	September 1982
Discourse written production	5,6	November-December 1982
Sociolinguistic written production	5,6	December 1982
Grammatical oral production	5,6	January-March 1983
Discourse oral production	5,6	March-April 1983

Table III:2

Inter-rater Reliability on Grammatical Written Production Test

(Pearson correlations of original scores with new scores of rater 3)

		Syntax		Prepositions			Verbs		
Rater	No. of compositions	Total	Errors	Total	Errors	Range	Total	Non-hom. errors	Homoph. errors
1	10	.98	.81	.74	.61	.72	.96	.55	.93
2	10	.98	.65	.95	.82	.73	.99	.75	.84
3	10	.97	.73	.93	.83	.95	.99	.95	.97
4	10	.95	.83	.99	.93	.94	.86	.21	.87
1, 2, & 4	30	.97	.78	.94	.80	.83	.93	.56	.91
1, 2, 3, & 4	40	.97	.77	.93	.75	.84	.95	.64	.92

Table III:3

Inter-rater Reliability on Grammatical Oral Production Test

(Pearson correlations between scores of raters 5 and 6)

Verbs (n = 12)		Syntax (n = 10)		Prepositions (n = 12)	
Total score	Error score	Total score	Error score	Total score	Error score
.90	.93	.99	.87	.98	.70

Table III:4

Inter-rater Reliability on Discourse Written Production Test

(Pearson correlations between scores of raters 5 and 6)

Reliability check	n	Basic	Ident	Time	Anaph	Logic	Punct	Total
1*	10	.86	.90	.57	.77	.42	.66	.79
2	10	.80	.79	.88	.63	.31	.64	.83
3	10	.99	.65	.78	-.12	.56	.95	.83
4	10	.95	.60	.62	.76	-.14	.82	.84
All tests	n=40	.87	.76	.77	.59	.33	.74	.83
Tests 2-4	n=30	.88	.69	.81	.49	.29	.76	.85

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*Post-training check

Table III:5

Inter-rater Reliability on Global Scores for Discourse Written Production Test

(Pearson correlations between scores of raters 5 and 6)

Composition	(n = 69)
Aux Voleurs!	.79
Le Chien	.71
Au Secours!	.76
La Bicyclette	.75

Table III:6

Inter-rater Reliability on Discourse Oral Production Test

(Pearson correlations between scores of raters 5 and 6)

Check	Scene	Ident	Logic	Time	Global	Total	Q4
1 (n=10)	.86	.84	.88	.74	.89	.88	.81
2 (n=10)	.78	.94	.94	.61	.93	.86	.74
1 & 2 (n=20)	.81	.84	.91	.66	.91	.88	.77

Table III:7

Grammatical Oral Production
Performance Levels — Percentage Correct

	Immersion Students				Native Speakers				Comparison		
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	t	sig of t	sig of U
Syntax	81.3	13.1	44.4	100.0	96.5	6.8	79.2	100.0	3.60	.01	.01
Prepositions	80.5	12.1	50.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	--	--	.01
Verbs	57.0	18.1	8.3	100.0	96.4	5.1	87.5	100.0	6.79	.01	.01
Total	73.2	8.6	54.5	90.0	96.9	4.0	86.5	100.0	8.56	.01	.01
Total-Prep	69.0	12.2	38.1	95.7	95.6	5.3	83.3	100.0	6.77	.01	.01

Table III:8

Grammatical Oral Production
Correlations of Component and Overall Scores

	Syntax	Prep	Verbs	Total
Prepositions	-.10			
Verbs	.04	-.10		
Total	.45	.37	.67	
Total-Prep	.55	-.13	.79	.84

Table III:9

Multiple Choice Tests — Performance Levels

	Immersion Students				Native Speakers				Comparison		
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	t	sig of t	sig of U
Grammatical	27.35	4.41	18	39	36.60	4.40	27	42	6.20	.01	.01
Discourse	19.32	3.78	10	26	20.60	2.84	17	26	1.03	--	--
Sociolinguistic	35.29	6.13	24	55	40.50	10.10	22	52	2.29	.05	--

Table III:10

Grammatical Written Production Performance Levels by Topic Percentage Correct

Immersion Students

	Narr 1		Narr 2		Lett 1		Lett 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Syntax	78.0	17.4	76.9	17.5	74.5	21.0	72.6	18.7
Prepositions	79.6	19.3	74.2	18.1	82.5	20.9	79.0	19.7
Non-hom vb	79.9	16.4	80.7	12.8	89.8	10.0	91.5	9.4
Hom verb	73.2	14.8	76.3	14.5	82.8	12.7	81.6	15.9
Total	67.3	12.5	67.4	12.6	74.7	11.2	74.3	12.9

Native Speakers

	Narr 1		Narr 2		Lett 1		Lett 1	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Syntax	95.6	6.1	91.1	10.1	95.9	5.7	91.9	11.7
Prepositions	95.4	8.0	97.6	5.6	90.8	16.9	100.0	0.0
Non-hom vb	95.7	6.5	91.4	10.3	98.7	2.7	97.9	3.7
Hom verb	75.1	15.4	77.3	10.5	79.8	12.1	84.2	15.6
Total	83.7	9.5	81.5	12.0	86.9	8.0	88.0	9.3

Table III:11

Grammatical Written Production
Performance Levels Averaged over Four Topics
Percentage Correct

	Immersion Students				Native Speakers				Comparison		
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	t	sig of t	sig of U
Syntax	75.5	12.1	45.0	96.0	93.6	6.9	78.1	100.0	4.60	.01	.01
Prepositions	78.8	10.5	52.9	96.9	96.0	6.3	82.0	100.0	5.01	.01	.01
Non-hom vb	85.5	7.2	52.0	98.2	95.9	4.6	85.4	100.0	4.49	.01	.01
Hom vb	78.5	9.0	52.5	96.1	79.1	10.3	59.5	94.9	.20	--	--
Total	70.9	8.7	49.1	85.2	85.0	8.5	73.0	96.7	4.82	.01	.01

Table III:12

Grammatical Written Production
Correlations between Replications and Estimate of Reliability

	Syntax	Prep	N-h verb	H verb	Total
Narrative	.10	.17	.08	.20	.36
Letter	.32	-.01	.10	.45	.45
Narrative + letter					.52
RELIABILITY					.68

Table III:13

Grammatical Written Production
Correlations of Component and Overall Scores

	Syntax	Prep	N-h verb	H verb
Prespositions	.14			
Non-hom verb	.45	.31		
Hom verb	.15	.14	.04	
Total	.74	.45	.67	.60

Table III:14

Discourse Oral Production
Performance Levels — Ratings on a Scale from 1 to 5

	Immersion Students				Native Speakers				Comparison		
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	t	sig of t	sig of U
Scene	2.96	1.16	1	5	3.50	.85	2	5	1.43	--	--
Ident	3.19	1.07	1	5	3.90	1.37	1	5	1.89	.06	--
Logic	2.88	1.29	1	5	2.90	1.37	1	5	.04	--	--
Time	3.52	1.18	1	5	4.50	.71	3	5	2.54	.01	.05
Arg Q	2.86	1.55	1	5	3.40	1.26	1	5	1.06	--	--
Total	3.08	.79	1.20	4.40	3.64	.79	2.60	5.00	2.10	.05	--
Global	2.90	.88	1.00	4.60	3.56	1.04	2.20	5.00	2.16	.05	--

Table III:15

Discourse Oral Production
Correlations of Component and Overall Scores

	Scene	Ident	Logic	Time	Arg Q	Total
Ident	.52					
Logic	.42	.74				
Time	.16	.13	.25			
Arg Q	.13	.03	.14	.07		
Total	.67	.72	.78	.49	.51	
Global	.59	.71	.81	.36	.47	.92

Table III:16

Discourse Written Production
Performance Levels by Topic — Ratings

Immersion Students

	Narr 1		Narr 2		Lett 1		Lett 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Basic	1.67	.51	1.62	.58	1.65	.50	1.70	.46
Ident	1.59	.46	1.70	.46	.80	.60	.90	.66
Time	1.08	.60	1.17	.56	1.83	.32	1.86	.33
Anaph	1.55	.51	1.69	.50	1.84	.29	1.76	.35
Logic	1.14	.61	1.39	.61	1.67	.45	1.64	.47
Punct	1.47	.55	1.54	.66	1.65	.49	1.54	.54
Total	1.42	.30	1.52	.32	1.58	.23	1.57	.22
Global	3.21	1.27	3.15	1.43	3.23	1.30	3.43	1.47

Native Speakers

	Narr 1		Narr 2		Lett 1		Lett 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Basic	1.95	.16	1.90	.32	1.55	.69	1.85	.47
Ident	1.90	.32	1.85	.34	.45	.50	.55	.64
Time	1.20	.63	.85	.82	1.70	.68	2.00	.00
Anaph	1.15	.85	1.50	.75	1.95	.16	1.90	.32
Logic	1.65	.53	1.60	.66	1.65	.67	1.50	.67
Punct	1.00	.91	1.55	.55	.90	.81	1.20	.82
Total	1.48	.29	1.54	.31	1.37	.27	1.50	.26
Global	4.00	1.79	4.10	1.66	4.30	1.44	3.90	1.66

Table III:17

Discourse Written Production
Performance Levels Averaged over Four Topics — Ratings

	Immersion Students				Native Speakers				Comparison		
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	t	Sig of t	Sig of U
Basic	1.66	.28	.63	2.00	1.81	.30	1.13	2.00	1.61	--	--
Ident	1.25	.31	.38	1.75	1.19	.25	.75	1.63	-.58	--	--
Time	1.49	.30	.50	2.00	1.44	.38	1.00	2.00	-.47	--	--
Anaph	1.71	.24	.88	2.00	1.63	.33	1.00	2.00	-.98	--	--
Logic	1.46	.30	.75	2.00	1.60	.35	1.00	2.00	1.34	--	--
Punct	1.55	.41	.38	2.00	1.16	.54	.50	1.88	-2.67	.01	.05
Total	1.52	.19	.79	1.85	1.47	.24	1.19	1.81	-.72	--	--
Global	3.25	1.04	1.38	5.25	4.08	1.42	2.00	6.00	2.22	.05	--

Table III:18

Discourse Written Production
Correlations between Replications and Estimate of Reliability

	Basic	Ident	Time	Anaph	Logic	Punct	Total	Global
Narrative	.19	.14	.31	.40	.12	.22	.37	.48
Letter	.20	.42	.15	-.02	.08	.50	.45	.50
Narrative + letter							.55	.70
RELIABILITY							.71	.82

Table III:19

Discourse Written Production
Correlations of Component and Overall Scores

	Basic	Ident	Time	Anaph	Logic	Punct	Total
Ident	.22						
Time	.11	.18					
Anaph	.29	.45	.18				
Logic	.32	.15	.18	.17			
Punct	.43	.35	.13	.40	.33		
Total	.63	.63	.47	.64	.58	.76	
Global	.62	.47	.18	.33	.42	.51	.69

Table III:20

Sociolinguistic Oral Production Performance Levels by Situation — Difference Scores, Formal-Informal Use

Immersion Students

	Req 1		Req 2		Sug 1		Sug 2		Com 1		Com 2	
	X̄	SD	X̄	SD	X̄	SD	X̄	SD	X̄	SD	X̄	SD
Intro	.638	.484	.638	.484	.536	.502	.290	.545	.464	.531	.565	.499
Tu/vous	.232	.425	.145	.355	.246	.434	.043	.361	--	--	.130	.512
Quest	.058	.235	.000	.171	.217	.415	.116	.438	.029	.342	.275	.616
Cond	.072	.396	.058	.338	.014	.271	.029	.453	1.000	.297	.072	.312
Other	.029	.241	.145	.463	.116	.530	.072	.396	.159	.407	.087	.411
Finale	.130	.482	.087	.332	.145	.493	.043	.361	.029	.484	.130	.512
Total	1.158	.936	1.074	.912	1.278	1.170	.594	.978	1.680	.738	1.260	1.212
Tot-Tu/vous	.930	.865	.930	.830	1.030	1.070	.595	.975	.680	.735	1.130	1.100

Native Speakers

	Req 1		Req 2		Sug 1		Sug 2		Com 1		Com 2	
	X̄	SD	X̄	SD	X̄	SD	X̄	SD	X̄	SD	X̄	SD
Intro	.300	.483	.600	.516	.100	.316	.600	.516	.300	.675	.500	.527
Tu/vous	.900	.316	.400	.516	.700	.483	.900	.316	--	--	.900	.316
Quest	.600	.516	.000	.000	.900	.316	.200	.483	.100	.316	.600	.516
Cond	.200	.422	.300	.483	.400	.516	.300	.422	.300	.483	.200	.422
Other	.800	.422	.500	.527	.800	.422	.200	.483	.400	.516	.300	.483
Finale	.300	.483	.000	.000	.400	.516	.000	.471	.300	.823	.200	.422
Total	3.102	1.200	1.800	.918	3.300	.948	2.298	1.158	2.400	1.578	2.700	.822
Tot-Tu/vous	2.200	1.230	1.400	.845	2.600	.965	1.400	1.075	1.400	1.580	1.800	.630

Table III:21

Sociolinguistic Oral Production
Performance Levels Averaged over Six Situations
Absolute Scores

	Immersion Students				Native Speakers			
	Informal		Formal		Informal		Formal	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Intro	.201	.228	.722	.252	.033	.070	.433	.263
Tu/vous	.072	.119	.232	.298	.000	.000	.760	.158
Quest	.778	.187	.894	.143	.467	.219	.883	.137
Cond	.092	.144	.133	.213	.033	.070	.300	.233
Other	.418	.213	.519	.197	.067	.117	.583	.180
Finale	.254	.217	.348	.257	.167	.157	.367	.258
Total	.767	.370	3.327	.698	1.810	.514	2.850	.637

Table III:22

Sociolinguistic Oral Production
Performance Levels Averaged over Six Situations
Difference Scores, Formal-Informal Use

	Immersion Students				Native Speakers				Comparison		
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	t	sig of t	sig of U
Intro	.522	.263	.000	1.000	.400	.263	.000	.667	-1.37	--	--
Tu/vous	.300	.220	.000	.833	.800	.132	.500	1.000	6.97	.01	.01
Quest	.117	.180	-.333	.500	.417	.180	.000	.667	4.96	.01	.01
Cond	.042	.150	-.333	.500	.267	.210	.000	.667	4.22	.01	.01
Other	.102	.167	-.333	.500	.517	.183	.167	.833	7.25	.01	.01
Finale	.095	.203	-.333	.667	.200	.258	-.167	.500	1.49	--	--
Total	1.170	.530	.167	2.500	2.600	.570	1.830	3.670	7.94	.01	.01
Tot-Tu/vous	.875	.517	.000	2.167	1.800	.517	1.167	2.833	5.27	.01	.01

Table III:23

Sociolinguistic Oral Production Correlations of Component and Overall Scores

	Intro	Tu/vous	Quest	Cond	Other	Finale	Total
Tu/vous	-.09						
Quest	.15	-.04					
Cond	.04	-.14	.37				
Other	.20	-.13	.19	.08			
Finale	.05	-.11	.09	.07	-.12		
Total	.61	.24	.59	.42	.41	.38	
Total-Tu/vous	.65	-.18	.62	.49	.47	.43	.91

Table III:24

Sociolinguistic Oral Production Correlations between Replications and Estimate of Reliability

	Intro	Tu/vous	Quest	Cond	Other	Finale	Total	Tot-Tu/vous
Request	.06	.16	.00	-.03	-.17	-.16	.14	.19
Suggestion	.18	.40	.10	.12	-.11	-.04	.18	.16
Complaint	.16	--	.24	-.16	.18	.04	.06	.13
R+S+C							.49	.47
RELIABILITY							.66	.64

Table III:25

Sociolinguistic Written Production
Performance Levels Averaged over Two Topic Pairs
Difference Scores, Letter-Note

	Immersion Students				Native Speakers				Comparison		
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	t	sig of t	sig of U
Cond	.195	.335	-1.00	1.00	.700	.350	.00	1.00	4.43	.01	.01
MQP	.645	.365	-.50	1.00	.750	.355	.00	1.00	.85	--	--
Tu/vous	.230	.350	-.50	1.00	1.000	.000	1.00	1.00	--	--	.01
Closing	.405	.455	-.50	1.00	.650	.410	.00	1.00	1.60	--	--
Total	1.480	.840	-1.00	3.50	3.100	.667	2.00	4.00	5.83	.01	.01
Tot-Tu/vous	1.245	.735	-1.00	2.51	2.100	.667	1.00	3.00	3.45	.01	.01

Table III:26

Sociolinguistic Written Production
Performance Levels by Topic Pair — Difference Scores

Immersion Students

	Lett 1 - Note 1		Lett 2 - Note 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Con	.29	.49	.10	.35
Modal	.62	.55	.49	.53
Quest	.71	.46	.41	.58
Polite	.49	.50	.19	.67
Vocab	-.01	.27	.13	.34
Tu/vous	.16	.44	.30	.46
Close	.33	.53	.48	.58
M/Q/P	.81	.39	.48	.58

Native Speakers

	Lett 1 - Note 1		Lett 2 - Note 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Cond	.65	.57	.57	.51
Modal	.48	.51	.43	.51
Quest	.48	.51	.48	.51
Polite	.57	.51	.30	.47
Vocab	.13	.46	.30	.56
Tu/vous	.96	.21	1.00	.00
Close	.52	.59	.61	.50
M/Q/P	.65	.49	.57	.51

Table III:27

Sociolinguistic Written Production Correlations between Replications and Estimate of Reliability

	Cond	Modal	Quest	Polite	Vocab	Tu/vous	Close	MQP	Total
Correlations	.26	-.06	.06	.20	-.14	.19	.30	.08	.39
RELIABILITY									.56

Table III:28

Reliability and Generalizability of Tests

Cell	Reliability	G-coefficients	
		Assumption 1	Assumption 2
Grammatical oral	--	--	--
Grammatical M-C	.62	--	--
Grammatical written	.68	.61	.50
Discourse oral	--	--	--
Discourse M-C	.75	--	--
Discourse written	.82	.81	.79
Sociolinguistic oral	.66	.64	.45
Sociolinguistic M-C	.58	--	--
Sociolinguistic written	.56	.60	.60

Table III:29

Variance Components under Two Assumptions
(see text)

Assumption 1:

Source (all facets random)	Cell Grammatical written	 Discourse written	 Socio-linguistic oral	 Socio-linguistic written
Classroom	.00078	19.137	-.0142	-.0073
Subject (classroom)	.00175	76.430	.1734	.4439
Topic set	-.00004	-1.166	-.0011	.0234
Classroom x topic set	.00001	4.234	-.0001	-.0189
Subject x topic set	.00227	36.089	.1961	.6015

$$G = \frac{\text{Subject}}{\text{Subject} + \frac{1}{T}\text{(Subject x Topic Set)}}$$

Assumption 2:

Source (all facets random)	Cell Grammatical written	 Discourse written	 Socio-linguistic oral	 Socio-linguistic written
Classroom	.00082	21.10	-.0128	-.0073
Subject (classroom)	.00144	78.03	.1227	.4439
Category	.00138	1.16	.0363	--
Topic (category)	-.00005	-1.01	.0887	.0234
Classroom x category	-.00006	-1.16	-.0360	--
Subject x category	.00065	4.36	.0419	--
Classroom x topic	.00006	2.94	.0633	-.0189
Subject x topic	.00437	74.49	.8096	.6015

$$G = \frac{\text{Subject}}{\text{Subject} + \frac{1}{C}\text{(Subject x Category)} + \frac{1}{CT}\text{(Subject x Topic)}}$$

Table III:30

Generalizability for Tests with Half or Double the Number of Topics and Number of Categories of Topics (Values for Present Tests are Underlined)

	Assumption 1		Assumption 2			
	Total No. of Topics		Total No. of Topics	No. of Categories		
				1	2	4
Grammatical	2	.44	2	.34	.36	
Written	4	.61	4	.45	.50	.53
Production	8	.76	8	.55	.62	.67
				1	2	4
Discourse	2	.68	2	.65	.66	
Written	4	.81	4	.77	.79	.80
Production	8	.89	8	.85	.87	.88
				1	3	6
Sociolinguistic	3	.47	3	.28	.30	
Oral	6	.64	6	.41	.45	.46
Production	12	.78	12	.53	.60	.62
Sociolinguistic	1	.42				
Written	2	.60				
Production	4	.75				

Table III:31

Comparison of Immersion Students and Native Speakers on Overall Cell Scores

Cell	Immersion Mean	Native Mean	t	sig of t	ω^2	sig of U
GO	73.2	96.9	8.56	.01	.48	.01
GM	27.4	36.6	6.20	.01	.32	.01
GW	70.9	85.0	4.82	.01	.22	.01
DO	2.9	3.6	2.16	.05	.04	--
DM	19.3	20.6	1.03	--	.00	--
DW	3.3	4.1	2.22	.05	.05	--
SO	1.2	2.6	7.94	.01	.44	.01
SM	35.3	40.5	2.29	.05	.05	--
SW	1.5	3.1	5.83	.01	.29	.01

Table III:32

Correlations among Overall Cell Scores

	GO	GM	GW	DO	DM	DW	SO	SM
GM	.180							
GW	.286	.600						
DO	.160	.100	.074					
DM	.240	.432	.432	.245				
DW	.178	.467	.496	.261	.460			
SO	.139	.073	.175	.103	.085	.023		
SM	.268	.314	.417	.295	.260	.326	.171	
SW	-.067	.198	.170	.219	.344	.530	-.038	.109

Table III:33

Exploratory Factor Analysis of Overall Cell Scores

Cell	Est Comm	Loadings on first Factor before rotation	Varimax Rotation Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Comm
GO	.17	.33	.22	-.02	.42	.23
GM	.42	.66	.66	.19	.17	.50
GW	.50	.76	.81	.09	.28	.75
DO	.18	.35	-.11	.40	.50	.43
DM	.34	.62	.42	.39	.25	.39
DW	.51	.75	.48	.61	.15	.63
SO	.06	.15	.09	-.05	.28	.09
SM	.27	.52	.29	.16	.51	.37
SW	.35	.48	.15	.78	-.13	.64

Table III:34

Confirmatory Factor Analysis — LISREL

(a) Eight cells

	Factor 1 General	Factor 2 Written	Uniqueness
GO	.64	--	.60
GM	.37	.74	.33
GW	.55	.52	.43
DO	.41	--	.83
DM	.53	.31	.63
DW	.25	.52	.72
SO	.22	--	.95
SM	.48	.22	.67

$\chi^2 = 5.67$, df = 15, p = .985

(b) Nine cells

	Factor 1 General	Factor 2 Written	Uniqueness
GO	.53	--	.72
GM	.49	.55	.47
GW	.68	.39	.38
DO	.30	--	.91
DM	.41	.42	.65
DW	.20	.66	.52
SO	.23	--	.95
SM	.47	.24	.72
SW	-.03	.49	.76

$\chi^2 = 14.13$, df = 21, p = .864

Table IV:1

Communicative Orientation Scores

	CLASS	First visit co-score	Second visit co-score
CORE FRENCH	Class 1	.37	.36
	Class 2	.32	.39
	Class 3	(missing data)	.36
	Class 4	.39	.43
EXTENDED FRENCH	Class 1	.53	.60
	Class 2	.63	(missing data)
EARLY IMMERSION	Class 1	.74	.77
	Class 2	.78	.71
E S L	Class 1	.36	---
	Class 2	.65	.68
	Class 3	.27	.32
	Class 4	---	---
	Class 5	---	---

Table V:I

Mean Differences Between Ratings of Standard Ethnic Groups and Average Ratings in Total Sample of Respondents*

Scale	English	French	Chinese	Portuguese	Italian
1. Hardworking	.06	.00	.30	.28	.23
2. Important	.69	.59	-.42	-.46	-.16
3. Canadian	.90	.78	-.71	-.88	-.43
4. Clean	.66	.48	-.22	-.20	-.33
5. Similar to me	1.45	1.08	-1.08	-.19	-.27
6. Likeable	.59	.51	-.21	-.12	-.19
7. Stick together as a group	-.81	-.04	.40	.39	.42
8. Wealthy	.73	.13	-.05	-.58	.29
9. Interesting	.28	.48	-.18	-.20	-.28
10. Well known to me	1.68	1.16	-.94	-.05	0

*Based on Berry, Kalin, and Taylor (1977:287)

Table V:2

Characteristics of the Sample

School	n	% of Gr. 7 Portuguese Heritage Lg. students in sample	Overall % of Portuguese-background students in school
1	22	40.7%	60%
2	35	62.5%	75%
3	25	62.5%	90%
4	20	40.0%	75%
5	24	33.0%	90%
6	28	62.2%	85%
7	37	46.3%	90%

Table V:3

Number of Students Completing Each Test

	Grammar written	Discourse written	Sociolinguistic written	Oral interview	Sociolinguistic oral
English	55	87	50	85	85
Portuguese	47	84	47	89	87

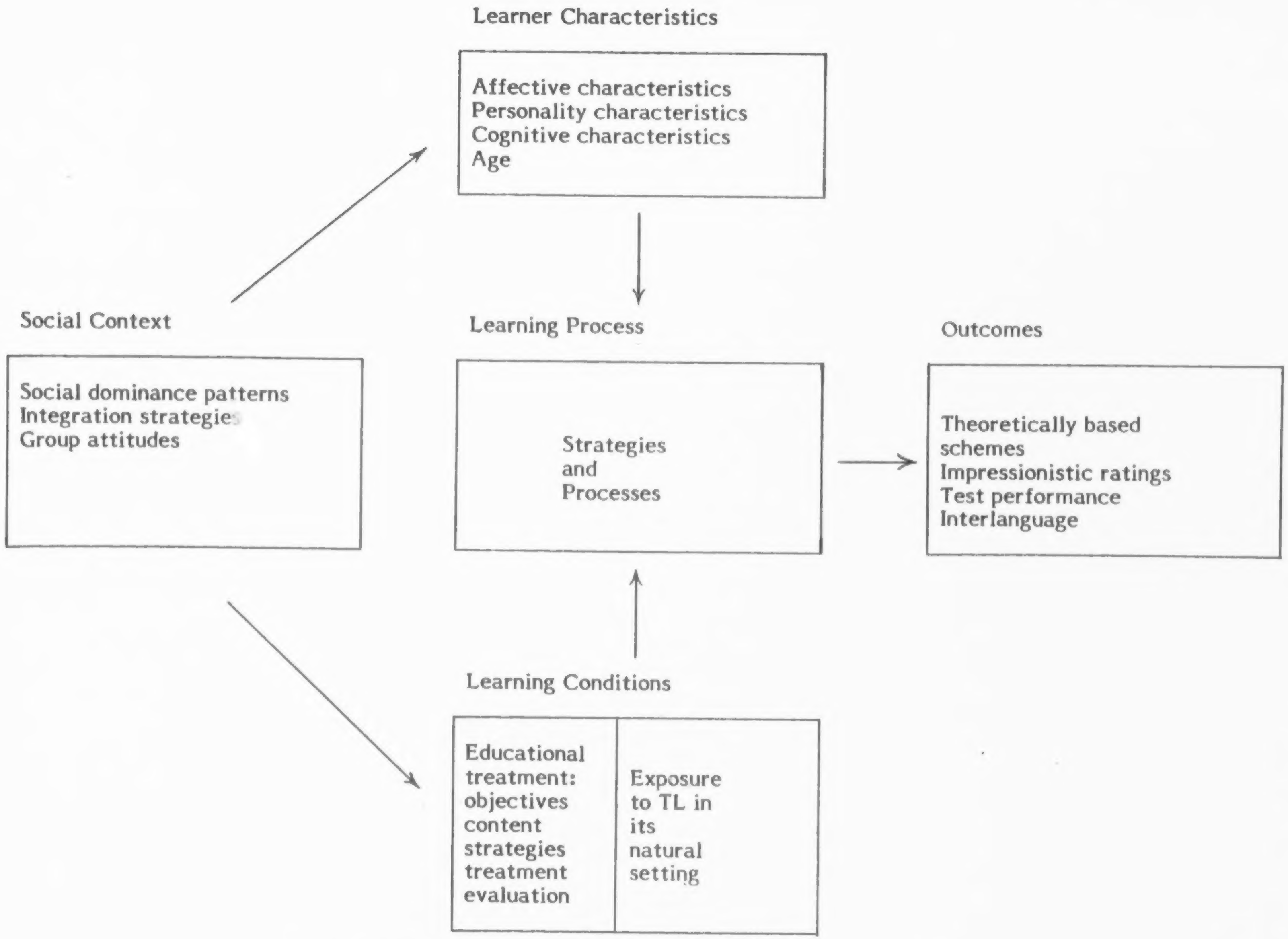

Learner Characteristics
Affective characteristics
Personality characteristics
Cognitive characteristics
Age
Social Context
Social dominance patterns
Integration strategies
Group attitudes
Learning Process
Strategies and Processes
Outcomes
Theoretically based schemes
Impressionistic ratings
Test performance
Interlanguage
Learning Conditions
Educational treatment:
objectives
content
strategies
treatment
evaluation
Exposure to TL in its natural setting

Figure II:1. **Framework for Examination of Second Language Learning**

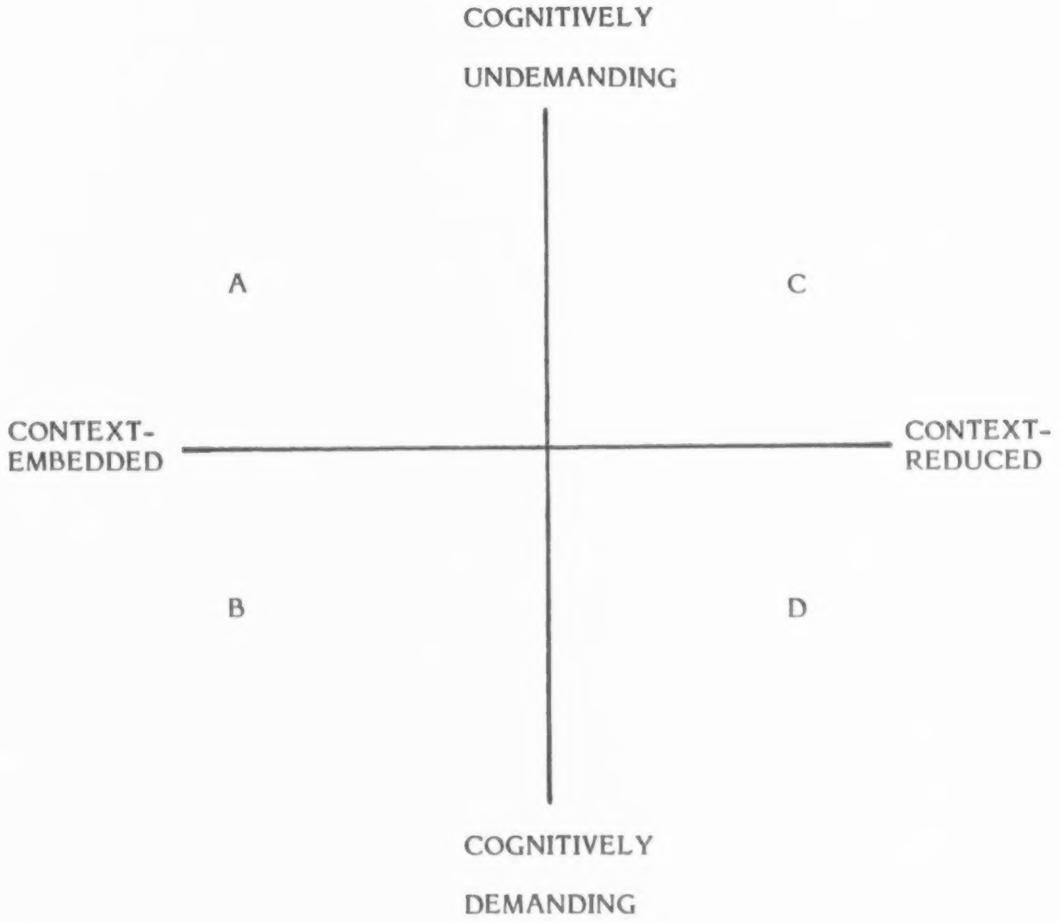

COGNITIVELY
UNDEMANDING
A
C
CONTEXT-EMBEDDED
CONTEXT-REDUCED
B
D
COGNITIVELY
DEMANDING

Figure II:2. Range of Contextual Support and Degree of Cognitive Involvement in Communicative Activities

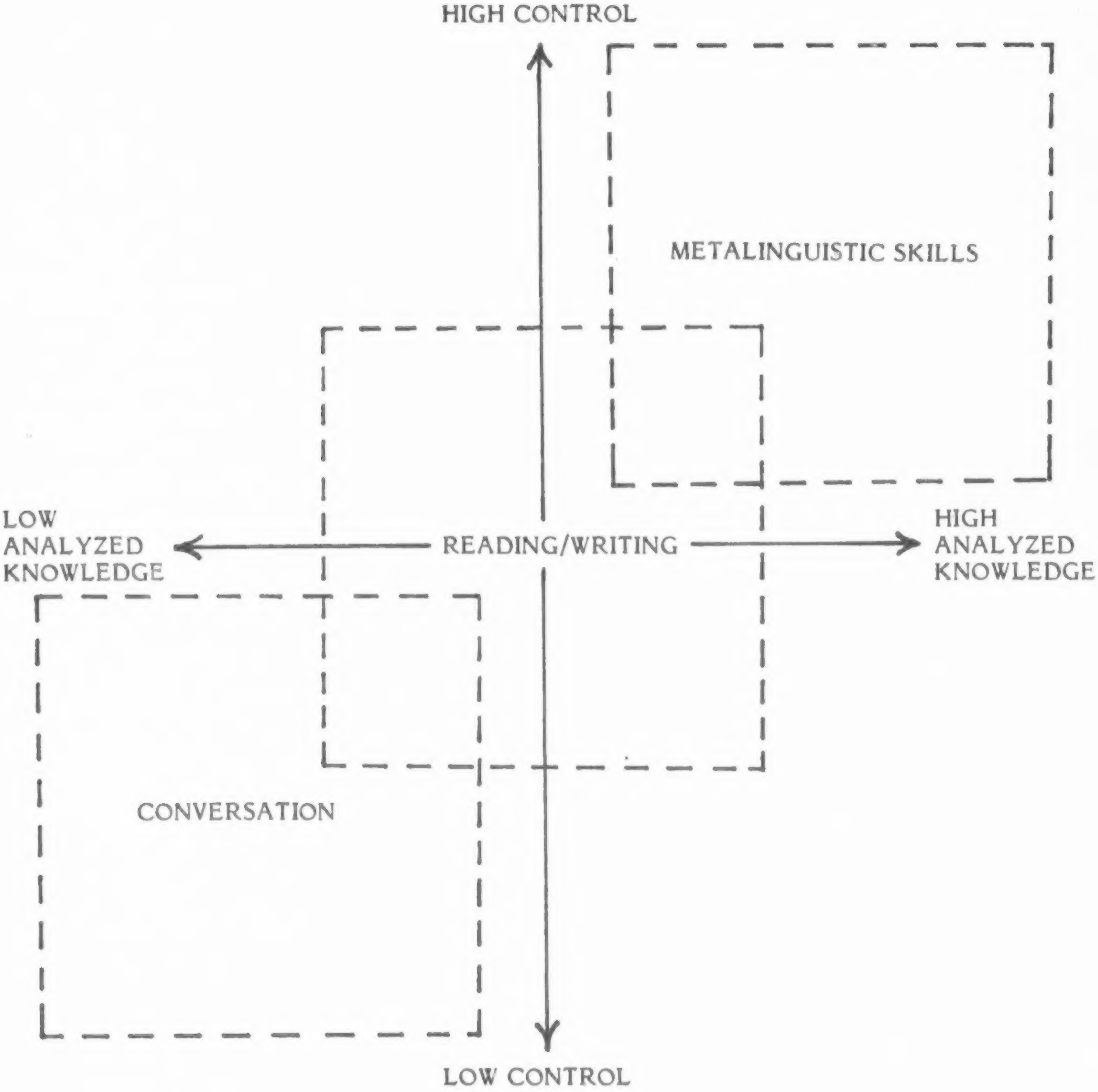

HIGH CONTROL
METALINGUISTIC SKILLS
LOW ANALYZED KNOWLEDGE
READING/WRITING
HIGH ANALYZED KNOWLEDGE
CONVERSATION
LOW CONTROL

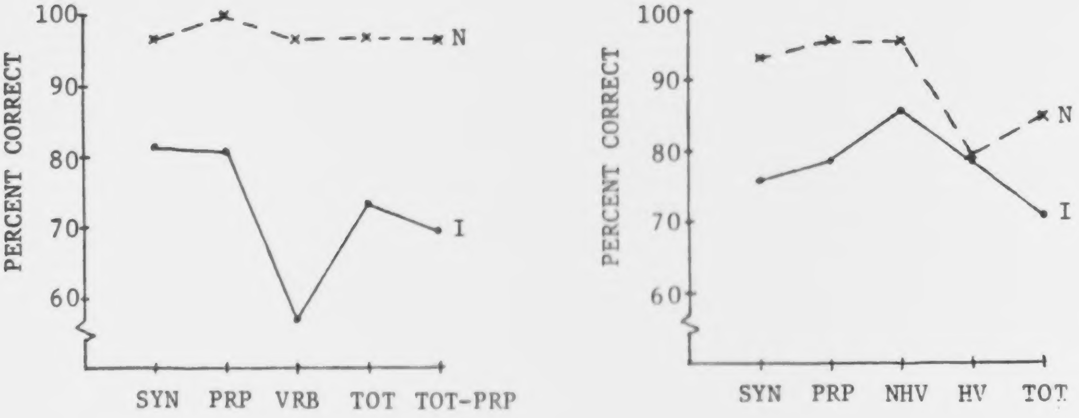
Figure II:3. **A Metacognitive Model of Language Skills**

	Grammar	Discourse	Sociolinguistic
Context-embedded			
Context-reduced			

Figure II:4. **Basic Development of Bilingual Proficiency Model**

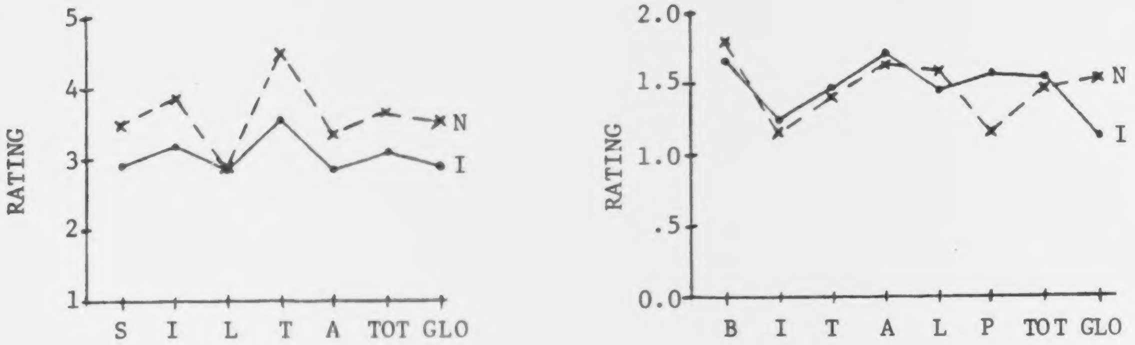
Traits Methods	Grammatical	Discourse	Socio-linguistic
Oral production	1,1 Interview	1,2 Movie retelling and discussion	1,3 Slide-tape situations
Multiple choice	2,1 Test de Grammaire	2,2 Discours à Choix Multiple	2,3 Socio-linguistique
Written production	3,1 Rédaction française Narrative: Au secours Letter: La bicyclette	3,2 Rédaction française Narrative: Aux voleurs Letter: Le chien	3,3 Ecrire en français

Figure III:1. **Matrix of Traits and Methods and Test Used to Assess Each**



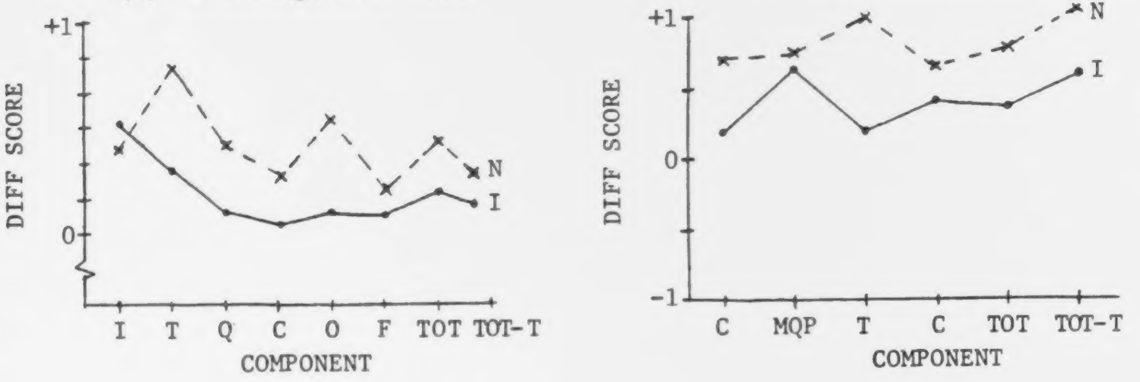
(a) Grammatical Oral

(b) Grammatical Written



(c) Discourse Oral

(d) Discourse Written



(e) Sociolinguistic Oral

(f) Sociolinguistic Written

Figure III:2 Performance Levels by Native Speakers (N) and Immersion Students (I) in Each Cell

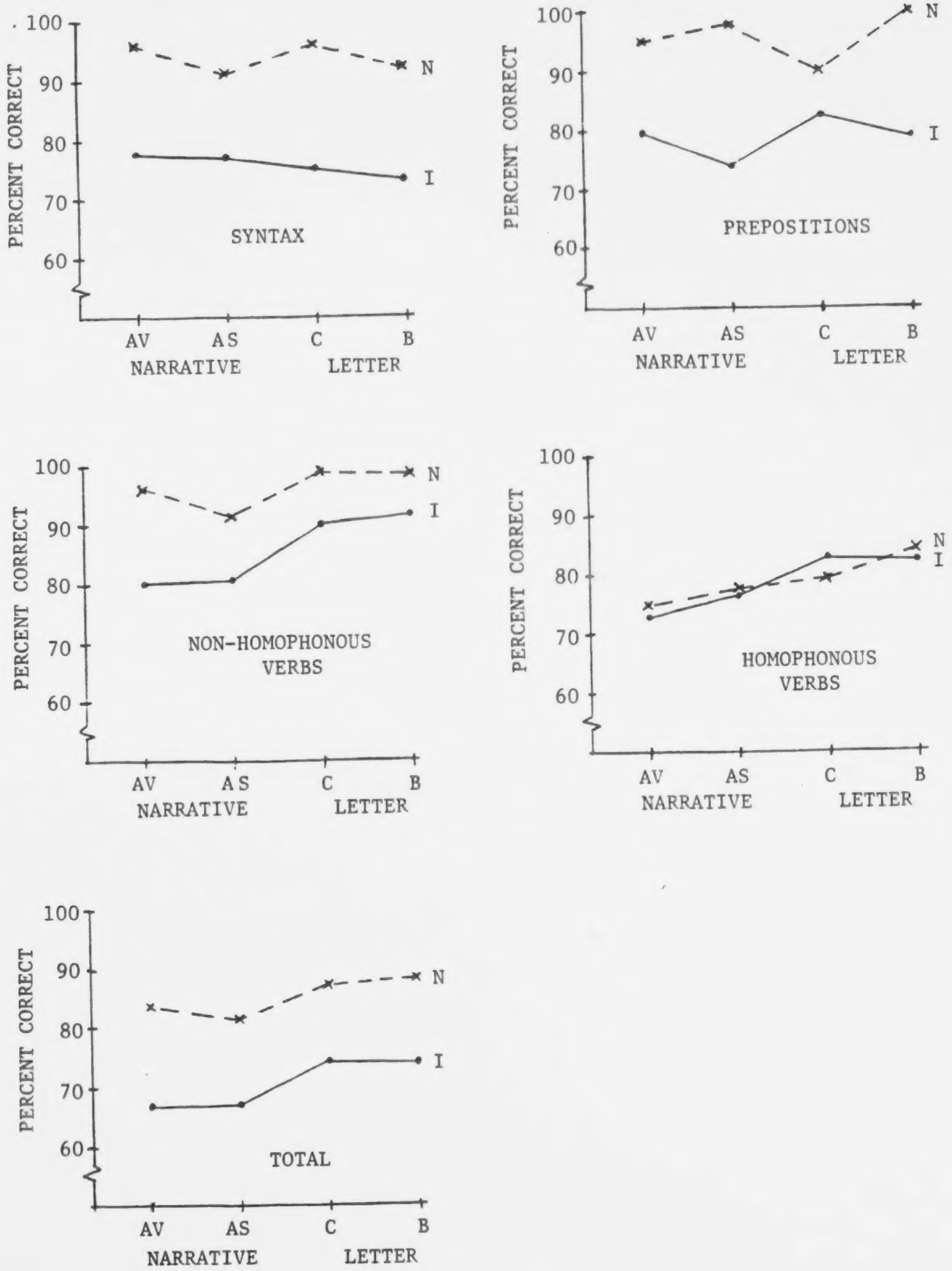


Figure III:3 Grammatical Written Production

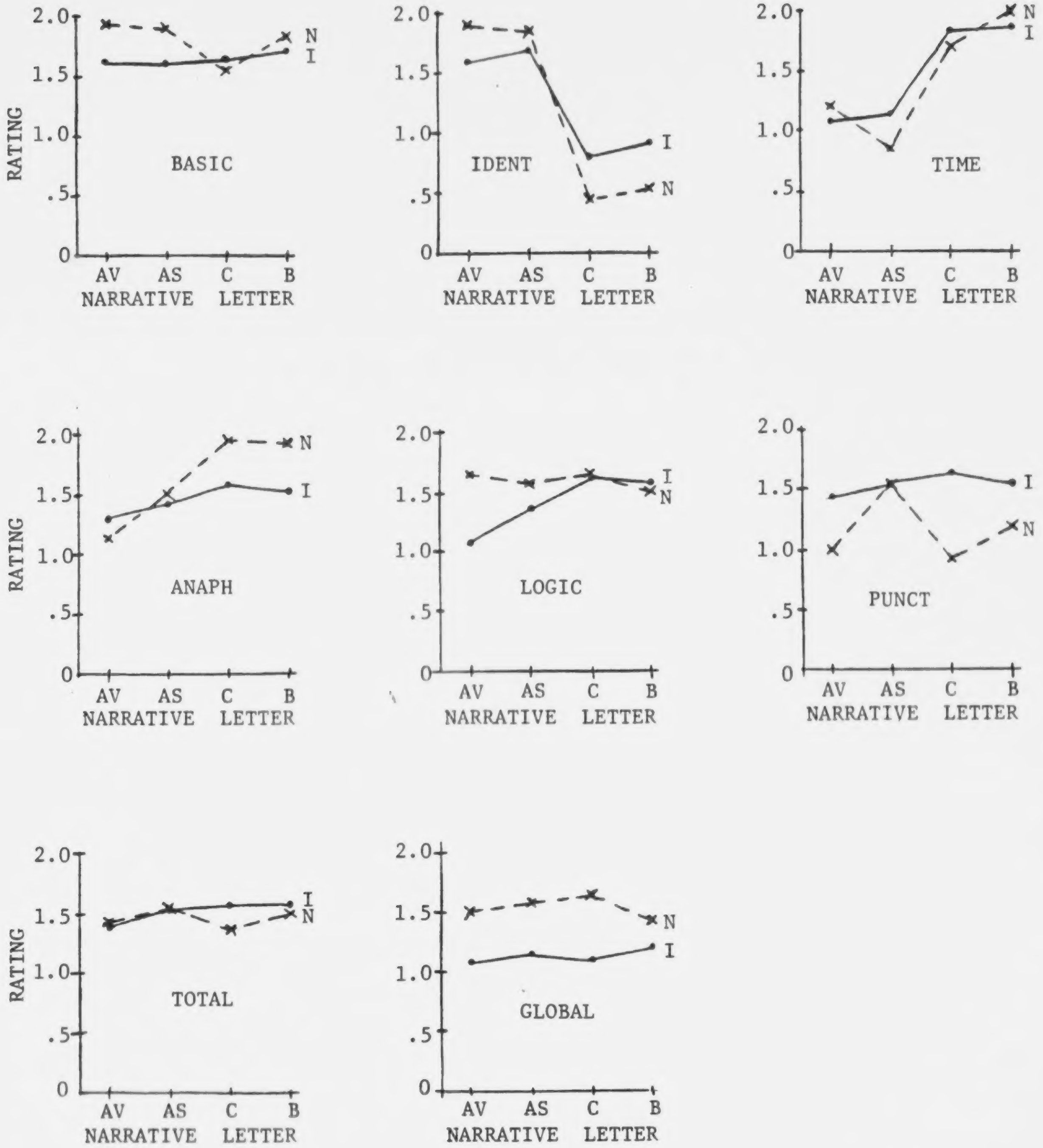


Figure III:4 Discourse Written Production

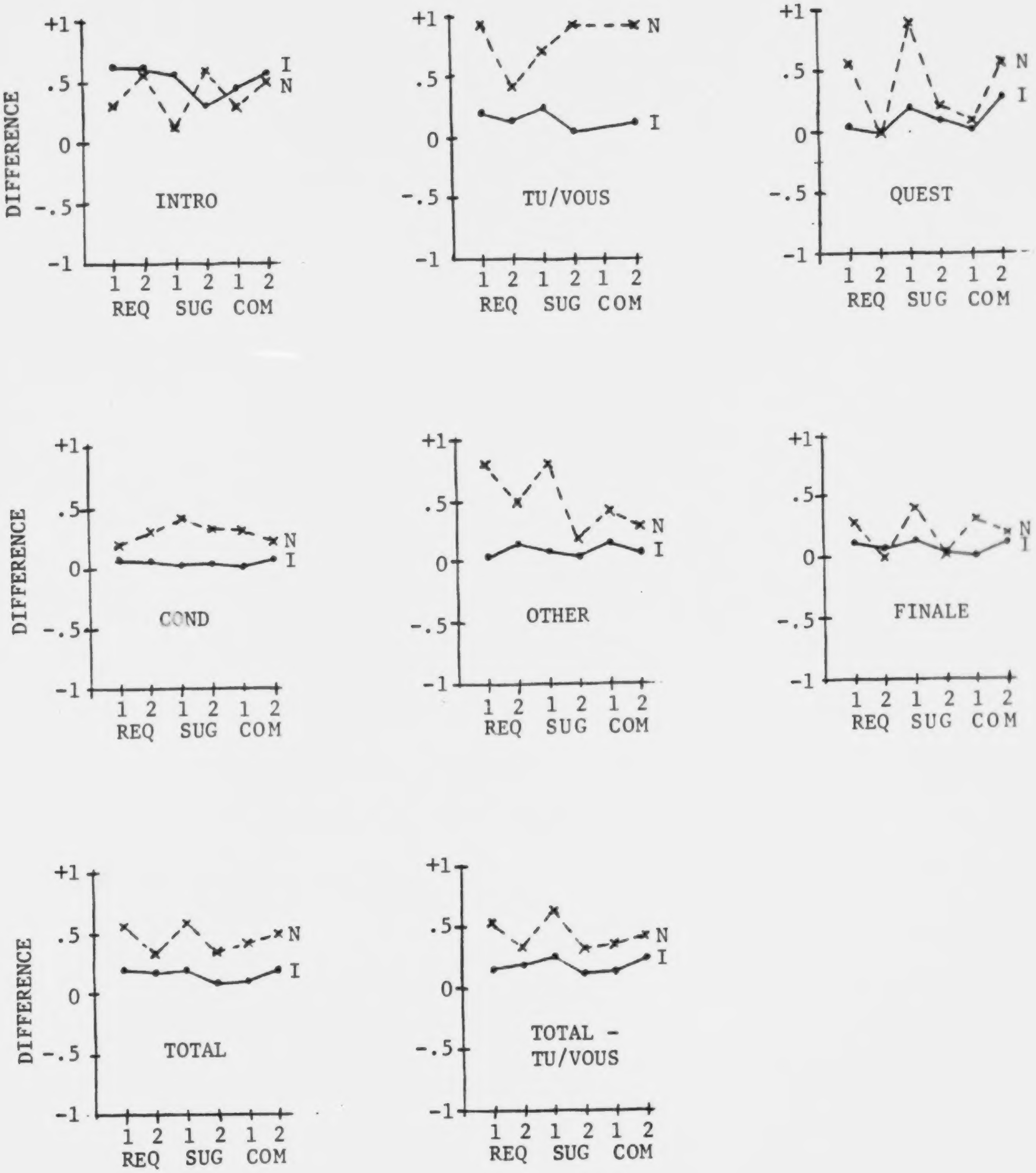


Figure III:5 Sociolinguistic Oral Production Difference Scores

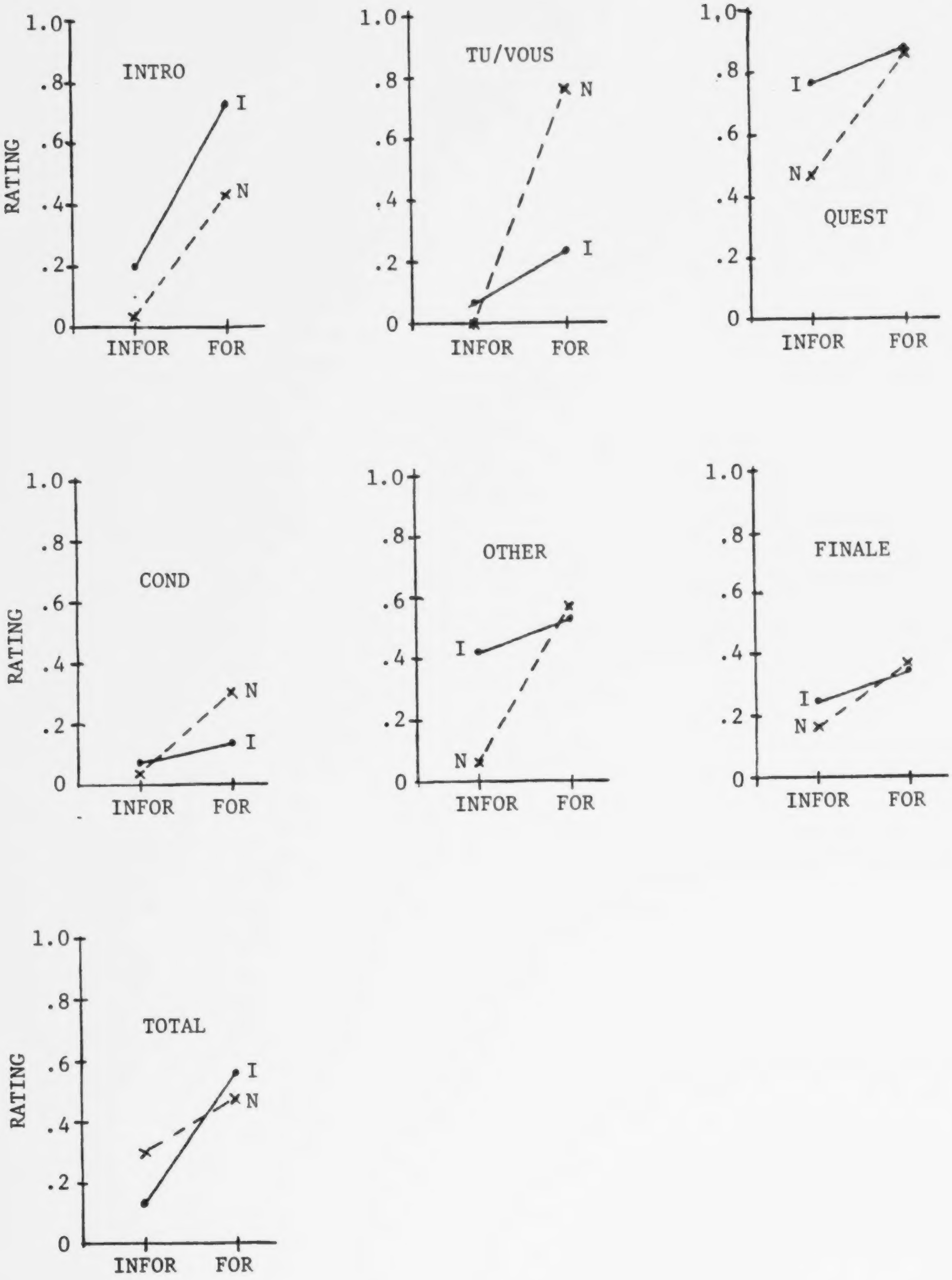


Figure III:6 **Sociolinguistic Oral Production Absolute Scores**

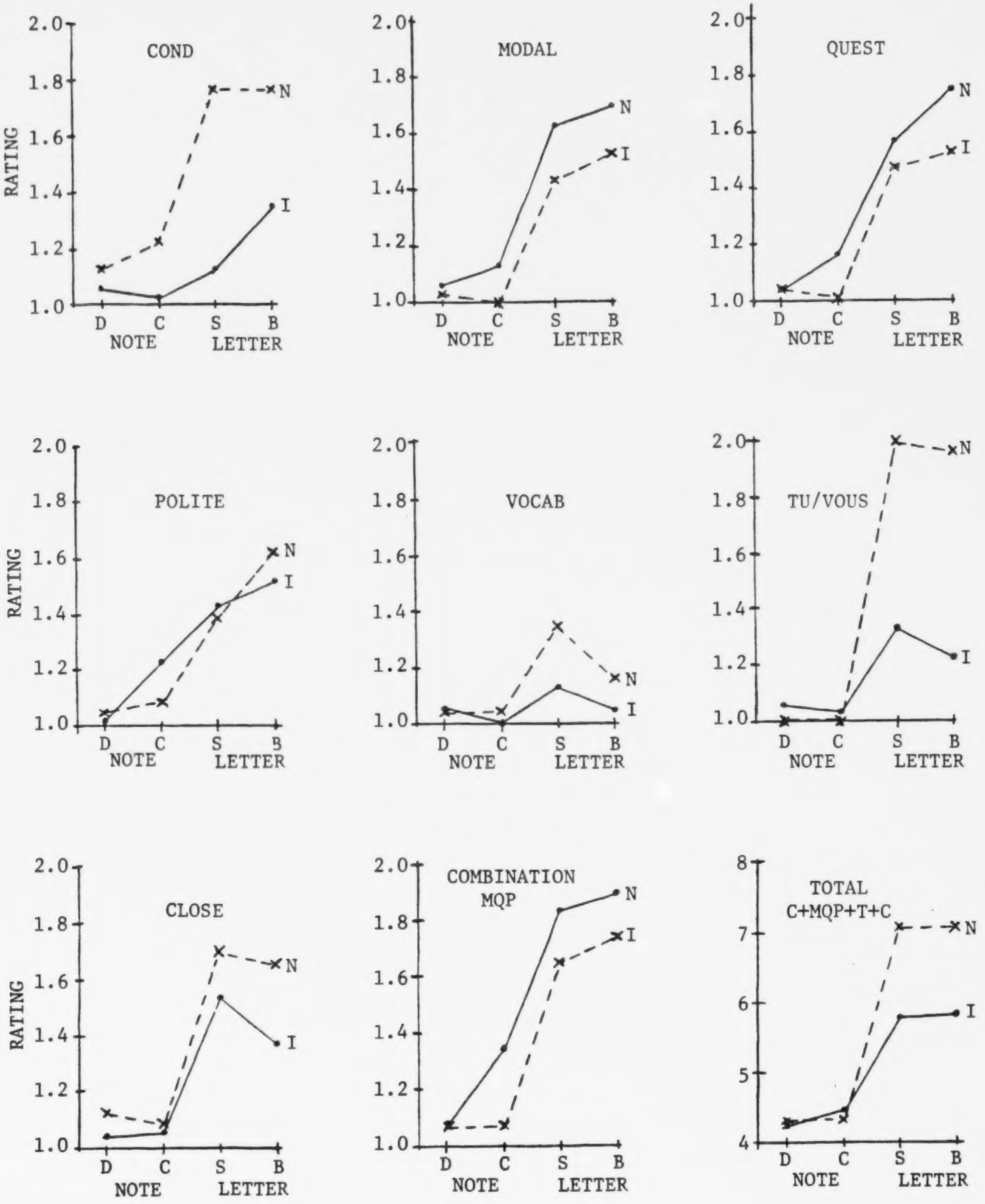


Figure III:7 **Sociolinguistic Written Production Absolute Scores**

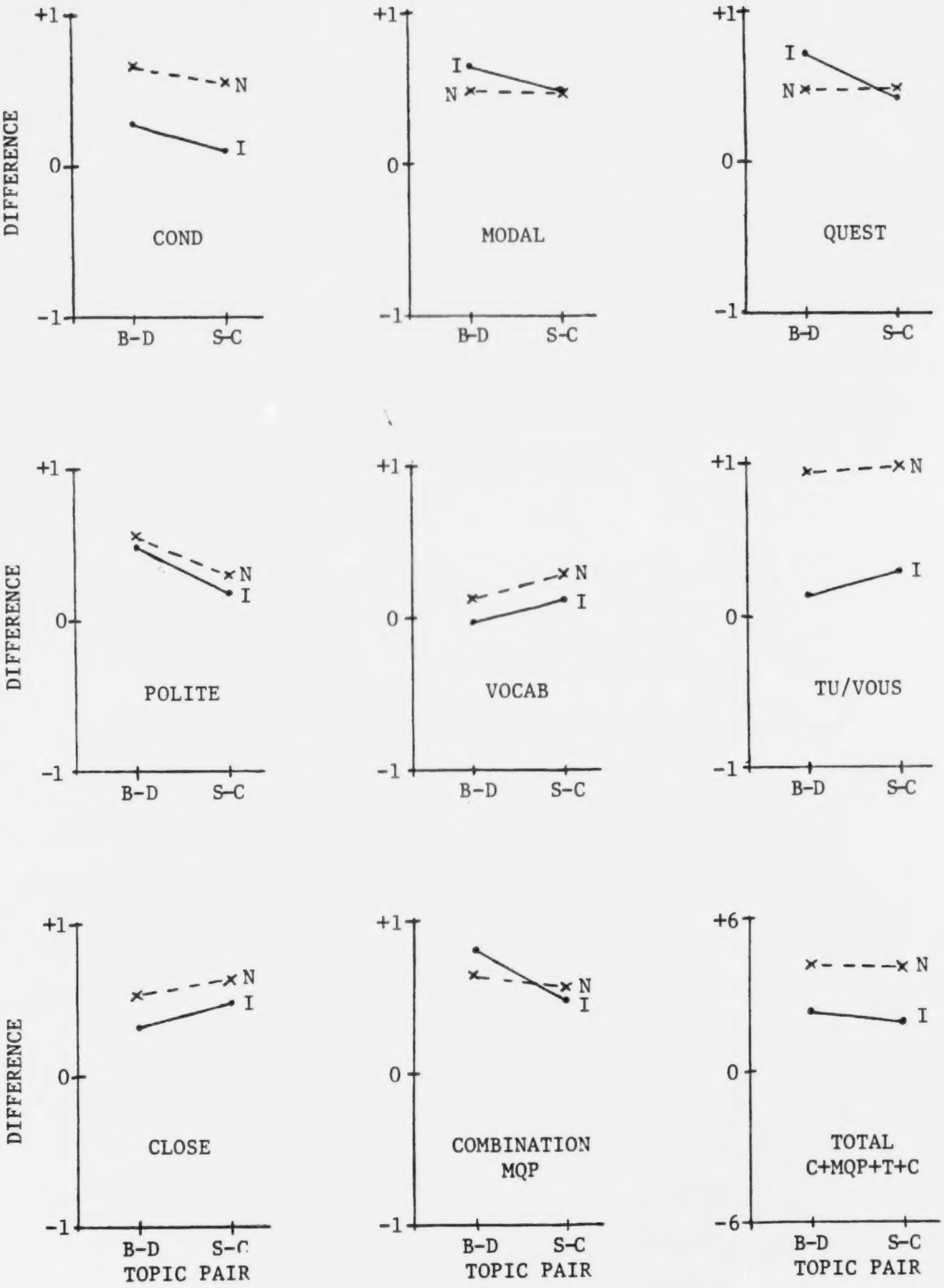


Figure III:8 Sociolinguistic Written Production Difference Scores

	JK	SK	1	1
Study Year				
3	G1 (N=32)	G2 (N=28)	G3 (N=24)	G4 (N=20)
4		G1	G2	G3
5			G1	G2

Figure VI:1 **Design of Portuguese Cross-Sectional Longitudinal Study**

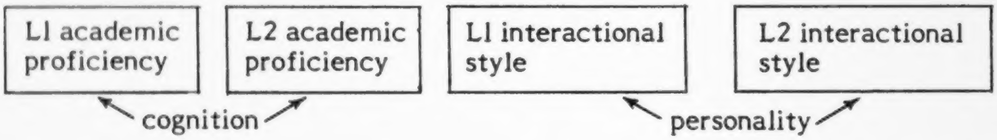

L1 academic proficiency
L2 academic proficiency
L1 interactional style
L2 interactional style
cognition
personality

Figure VI:2. **Attribute-based Linguistic Interdependence**

DEVELOPMENT OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY:

Second Year Report

APPENDICES

Submitted to the SSHRCC
by the Principal Investigators
and Staff of the Project

June 1983

The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
Toronto, Ontario

APPENDIX A

Attendance and Presentation at 7th Annual Conference on Portuguese American Education, Sacramento, California, March 1983

Jim Cummins

At this conference I presented a paper entitled "Issues in Bilingual Development among Portuguese Background Students in Toronto". The paper described the overall aims and methods of the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project as well as the specific Portuguese study which was just beginning at that time. A very fruitful discussion took place after the presentation on similarities and differences in the sociolinguistic situation of Portuguese background children in the United States and Canada.

A highlight of the conference was the presentation by Wallace Lambert on Portuguese Language Maintenance and Shift in North America. Discussions were held with members of the California State Department of Education on recent theoretical developments in the area of bilingual proficiency and specifically on possible theoretical disagreement between the approach proposed by Lambert and that embodied in the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project.

APPENDIX B

COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS OF YOUNG SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS:

Issues in Coding Speech Data from Face-to-face Conversations*

Summary of a report prepared in the
framework of the Development of Bilingual
Proficiency Project**

Jan H. Hulstijn
May 1983

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*This research was carried out while the author, who lectures in Applied Linguistics at the Free University in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, was working as a post-doctoral research associate at the Modern Language Centre of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, in Toronto, Canada. This fellowship was granted by the Netherlands Organization for the Advancement of Pure Research (Z.W.O.).

The author wishes to express his thanks to the following persons for their substantial help with the statistical analyses: Mary Lou King, Gila Hanna, and Jud Burtis. The author is grateful to Birgit Harley for her support as the coordinator of the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project, in the context of which this study was carried out. Above all, he wishes to express his gratitude to the investigators of the Linguistic Interdependence Study, Cummins, Swain, Nakajima, Handscombe, Green, and Tran, for so willingly providing him with data it had taken them much time and effort to collect.

**The full report of this study has been filed with the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada (Appendix File 4).

Introduction

This study deals, in an exploratory way, with the following three problems in the field of second language acquisition research:

(1) To what extent is it possible to score various aspects of oral second language (L2) performance in a relatively objective and detailed way, and how do these objective frequency counts relate to global, more subjective assessments on rating scales?

(2) How are the variables that measure these aspects of oral L2 performance interrelated? What support can be found for separate proficiency components such as speech fluency (hesitations), communicative style, sociolinguistic competence, and discourse competence, in addition to grammatical and lexical competence?

(3) If separate proficiency components can be identified, how are they influenced by the learners' exposure to the L2, indicated by their length of residence in the L2 community, and by their age?

The first two questions constitute the link between the present study and the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project, a large scale project that is currently being carried out at the Modern Language Centre. It was considered worthwhile to explore these questions beyond the data that had been collected and that are being collected within the Development of Bilingual Proficiency enterprise. For this exploratory investigation, an already existing data set appeared highly suitable, namely the data that had been collected by Jim Cummins, Merrill Swain, Kazuko Nakajima, Jean Handscombe, Daina Green and Chau Tran, in their study "Linguistic Interdependence among Japanese and Vietnamese Immigrant Students (in press) - henceforth the LI-study. In this study, 59 Japanese and 45 Vietnamese students, living in Toronto, were administered a large number of written and oral language tests in their mother tongue as well as in English. The present study focusses on a reanalysis of the data elicited by some of these tests, namely the English communicative tests (interview, role-play telephone calls, and story telling from a sequence of pictures), from some of these immigrant students. The subsample of students consisted of 11 grade 2/3 and 11 grade 5/6 Japanese students who had been in Canada from 15 months to 5 1/2 years.

One of the objectives of the LI-study was to provide an empirical test of Cummins' (1981 and 1983) distinction between tasks in which language is used for purposes of interpersonal oral communication, and tasks in which language is used in a more abstract, academic fashion, and to test Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983a,b) distinction of four kinds of communicative competence, namely grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence.

Tests

The present study reanalyzed the data of the following five English communicative tests:

1. Interview. The test administrator, a female research officer of the Modern Language Centre, visited the students in their homes. The first phase of their face-to-face communication, which was tape recorded, consisted of a non-structured interview, in which the interviewer engaged the children in a relaxed conversation about such topics as holidays, school events, and sports activities.

2-4. Three Telephone Conversations. Three role-playing situations involving toy telephones followed the interview test. In the first two calls, the Telephone-Answering Tests, the students were required to answer the telephone. In the third task, the Call-Placing Test, the students had to place a call to a movie theatre and ask three questions, concerning show time, ticket prices, and the location of the theatre. These three tests put demands on the students' knowledge of some sociolinguistic conventions typical for telephone conversations.

5. Picture Story (Picture Sequence Narration). The students were presented with six pictures showing a family going on a picnic trip; they were then asked to tell this story.

The reanalyzed data of these five communicative tests were compared with the data of the following five school-type, "academic" language tests:

1. Vocabulary (written). Gates-McGinitie grade 2 Vocabulary Test, consisting of 45 multiple choice items. One of four printed words correctly refers to an accompanying picture.
2. Reading (written). Gates-McGinitie grade 2 Reading Test with 40 multiple-choice items. One of four pictures correctly depicts the meaning of a written passage ranging in length from one to four sentences.
3. Prepositions (written). In each of 12 sentences one of the prepositions on, by, with, and of had to be filled in the blanks. This 12-item test was borrowed from Wright and Ramsey (1970).
4. Antonyms (orally, individually administered). The first 20 items of the Antonym Test from the LAU: Language Assessment Umpire (Cohen 1980). The students were given a word, e.g. cold, and had to tell the opposite, e.g. warm.
5. Sentence Repetition (orally, individually administered). Also adapted from the LAU: the test administrator read each sentence, which was immediately repeated by the student. There were 18 sentences, ranging from two to 18 words in length.

The scores on these five academic tests, for the 22 students in the subsample in the present study, were copied from the data file of the original LI-study.

Comparison of Two Scoring Methods

The method by which the speech data of the communicative tests had been coded, in the LI-study, for various aspects of the competencies in the Canale and Swain model, consisted of a procedure that rates student performance on a number of rating scales. The first objective of the present study was to code the same data in a different way and to make comparisons with the original method. To that end, the data from the English interview, telephone calls, and picture story, for the 22 students mentioned, were transcribed and scored by means of frequency counts for a great number of features that were considered of possible relevance to the notion of communicative language skills. This yielded 61 raw score variables, from which 27 proportion variables and seven combined variables were calculated. (Section 2 of Appendix File 4 describes these variables at some length.) The most important variables are repeated here.

A. Student speech variables in Interview and Telephone Conversations.

- Turns (continuous talking by the student without interviewer interruption);
- One-token Turns (a token is roughly equivalent to a word as in normal orthography);
- Non-answers (when a student did not respond to a question);
- Continuations of Turns (when a student spontaneously continued talking after having given an answer that could be considered sufficient under the circumstances);
- Spontaneous Turns (turn initiation without being asked a question);
- Overlaps (when a student began to speak before the interviewer had finished her question);
- Clarification Requests (when a student apparently had not understood the interviewer, and asked for clarification);
- Inappropriate Answers (e.g. a wh-question answered by "Yeah");
- Idiomatic Expressions (a conglomeration of words and expressions that modified the proposition's modality or its illocutionary force, i.e. determined its speech

act status, e.g. "well", "you know", "I guess", "maybe", "though", "sure", "You're welcome", "Pardon?", "Can you tell me...?";

- Latencies (periods of two seconds or more that elapsed after the interviewer had finished her turn, until onset of the student's turn);
- Pauses (unfilled pauses of minimally two seconds, within students' turns);
- Self-Repeats;
- Self-Corrections.

B. Student speech variables in Picture Story Test.

- Tokens;
- Speech Rate (tokens in proportion to length in seconds);
- Types;
- Clauses (utterances consisting of at least both a finite verb and a subject);
- Pronouns (personal and possessive pronouns);
- Connectors (e.g. "and", "and then", "after", "One day");

C. Interviewer speech variables.

- Questions, subcategorized into Yes/No-questions, Wh-questions, Or-choice questions etc.;
- Comments (all utterances not coded as questions);
- Prompts (in the Telephone Conversations and in the Picture Story).

Many of the theoretically more interesting variables, pertaining to turn taking, sociolinguistic skills, and fluency, turned out to have skewed, J-shaped distributions, while some variables could not be interpreted in an unambiguous way in terms of their positive or negative value for communicative skills. However, quite a few other variables showed a reasonable variance of individual data points.

Comparisons were carried out with ten of the rating scales of the original study. The results indicate that some constructs could be adequately operationalized in quantitative terms and measured by means of global rating scales as well as by counting exact frequencies per individual. For instance, the Richness of Information scale correlated substantially with the ratios Tokens per Turn, Spontaneous Turns, and Non-answers. And the Ease scale, pertaining to the students' shyness or ease in the interview, correlated substantially with the ratios Continuations, One-token Turns, Latencies, and Spontaneous Turns. Furthermore, a basic requirement for a correlational analysis is the existence of adequate variability in the primary data. Four comparisons indicated that absence of variability in the data caused skewed distributions in some of the scale ratings as well as in some of the frequency ratios. This happened, for instance, with the scale rating Semantic Appropriateness and the ratio Inappropriate Answers, and with the scale rating Clarification Strategies and the ratio Clarification Requests. Hence, the correlations within these pairs of measures are very low.

It was found that the interview, telephone calls, and picture story all had great discriminating power. This was demonstrated by the substantial dispersions in many of the ratio variables, such as One-Token Turns, Tokens per Turn, Spontaneous Turns, and Non-answers. However, some variables that aimed at measuring more specific linguistic features failed to discriminate students sufficiently. This was the case with the presence of certain specific speech acts or specific sociolinguistic forms, and variables that aimed to measure fluency characteristics, such as latencies, pauses, self-repeats, and self-corrections. In the case of speech acts and sociolinguistic forms, a sufficient discriminative power could be established by collapsing the manifestations of all these various illocutionary forces into one variable, broadly labeled Idiomatic Expressions. But in the case of fluency, not even the collapsing of variables yielded a combined variable with a reasonable dispersion. The reason was simply that the speech of only very few students exhibited hesitation phenomena.

This finding needs further investigation since it is not clear why so few hesitations exist in these data. One possible explanation is that the interactional and "context-embedded" nature of these tasks might have offered the students the opportunity to respond in a brief way while avoiding long elaborations on difficult topics demanding complicated linguistic means of expression. Another possible explanation is that children who learn a second language primarily through naturalistic L2 exposure, might be less concerned with the linguistic wellformedness of their utterances than educated adult L2 learners (Hulstijn, in preparation).

Concerning the advantages or disadvantages of frequency scores in comparison to global ratings, the latter method reduces the variability in the data whereas the former method reproduces the exact variability of the data. In the Picnic Story for instance, the three-point scale Richness of Detail tended to underestimate, on the theoretical level of interpretation, the variability, whereas the exact scores for Types tended to overestimate the theoretically interpretable variability. Which method to choose does not only depend on matters of reliability, time, and costs, but also on the purpose of measurement. In a factor-analytic study, it is crucial that all variables have maximal discriminative power. This is also essential in what Cziko (1982) calls "norm-referenced" measures of language proficiency. Such measures yield scores that are not interpretable in themselves but must be converted into a standard score in order to make interindividual comparisons possible (as is done in correlational analyses, such as factor analysis). If, on the other hand, the measurement functions as a "criterion-referenced" test, it seems to be less important to maximize the variability. A criterion-referenced test attempts to determine the true proficiency pattern of one or more groups of individuals by coding the students' performance with respect to a prespecified criterion, e.g., native-speaker peers. For these purposes, one is more likely to use statistics of the analysis of variance type. In this type of analysis, it is between-group differences that count, whereas within-group variance should be minimal, when it is the researcher's objective to show and explain the existence of group differences.

Finally, what is even more important than the issue of variability is the requirement of validity. On the one hand, rating scales such as Semantic Appropriateness or Shyness are extremely difficult to operationalize in terms of observable phenomena. On the other hand, however, occurrences that are easy to count are not necessarily easy to interpret. Thus, a gap must always be bridged, whether by translating subcategories of a rating scale into behavioral terms, or by giving observed phenomena a theoretical interpretation.

Factors of Communicative Skills

The second objective of this study was to carry out exploratory factor analyses on variables (frequency counts) with manageable distributions, in an attempt to find factors for turn-taking features, sociolinguistic and cohesion characteristics, and fluency phenomena, separately from grammar and vocabulary. Two groups of variables were factor analyzed, the first group consisting of 26 variables, taken not only from the communicative tests but also from the academic tests. The best interpretable solution yielded three orthogonal factors, accounting for 70% of the variance (see Table 1). The first factor was labeled General English Proficiency; all academic tests loaded highly on this factor as well as all variables from the picture story. Since this story consisted of a monologue, it is more akin to the academic tests than to the interview and the telephone calls that consisted of an interaction with an interlocutor.

The second factor was labeled Vocabulary Knowledge. The core of this factor consisted, in the interview, of Idiomatic Expressions (covering many conversational speech acts), and, in the telephone calls, of One-token Turns (negative), Types, and Idiomatic Expressions (covering many speech acts typical of telephone conversations).

The academic tests Vocabulary, Antonyms, and Sentence Repetition also contributed substantially to this factor.

In contrast to the first two factors, the third one is nonlinguistic in nature. It consists mainly of the following six interview variables: students' Tokens, Continuations, Spontaneous Turns, Hesitations, and, on the part of the interviewer, Repetitions of Questions, and Comments (as opposed to questions). This factor was given the label Communicative Style, to show its affinity with the Interactional Style Factor in the original LI-study. The latter factor was mainly formed by scales such as Richness, Semantic Appropriateness, and Ease. However, the first two of these scales combine linguistic with nonlinguistic features. The Communicative Style Factor in the present study, in contrast, manifests a predominantly nonlinguistic, personal profile, separated from the linguistic means of expression typical for interview and telephone conversations.

No separate factor was found for the fluency variables that were entered in this factor analysis. Pausing before turn initiation was totally unrelated to pausing, repeating, and correcting within turns. Moreover, there was virtually no relation between hesitations in the interview (pausing, repeating, and correcting within turns), and speech rate in the story telling task.

In a second factor analysis, eight variables were entered, taken only from the communicative tests. They were hypothesized to represent three postulated traits: Vocabulary, Cohesion, and Conversational Skills. However, the three-factor solution did not confirm the expected pattern, while it could not be given another interpretation either. The two-factor solution, however, showed a clear method effect (Table 2), the interview variables loading on one factor and the picture story variables, joined by the only telephone conversation variable, loading on the other. This solution, although not anticipated, still supports the results of the previous analysis: the interview tapped an ability to maintain a conversation, whereas the story demanded verbal behaviour of a non-interactional nature.

Length of Residence and Age

The third objective of this study was to investigate the extent to which the variables Length of Residence in Canada (LOR) and Age of the Japanese students in this study affected the various aspects of their performance on the communicative and academic English tests. To that end scatterplots and cross-tabulations were made of a number of fluency, turn-taking, and lexical variables from the communicative tests, grouping students' performance according to low LOR (15-18 months), mid LOR (22-23 months) and high LOR (58-68 months), and according to Younger Age (89-109 months, or grade 2/3) and Older Age (121-142 months, or grade 5/6). The preliminary examination of these scatterplots and crosstabs, without significance tests, seemed mandatory in view of the small number of students and the large number of variables. This analysis indicated a remarkable absence of LOR and Age effects, especially for the nonlinguistic turn-taking and fluency variables.

The next step was to carry out two-way analyses of variance with LOR and Age as independent variables and the factor scores of the three factors mentioned earlier as dependent variables. The results showed that the General English Proficiency Factor was strongly affected by LOR, and moderately (at the .07 level) by Age. The Vocabulary Knowledge Factor was affected only by LOR, while the Communicative Style Factor was affected by neither LOR nor Age.

It is concluded that amount of L2 exposure, for which LOR is a gross index, is the most important factor determining the level of linguistic skills. Cognitive development, as indicated by Age, appears to be a less important but substantial determiner of L2 skills in cognitively demanding tasks but not in undemanding conversational tasks.

Nonlinguistic aspects of performance on L2 tests, however, as evidenced by the Communicative Style Factor, are not related to L2 exposure or cognitive development. Communicative style can rather be considered as a personal attribute, perhaps associated with the notion "personality". (It should be noted that in this study LOR ranged from 15 months to only 5 1/2 years, and age ranged from 7 to 12 years. Obviously, this places limits on the generalizability of the findings.)

Perspectives for Further Research

The main findings of this study, as summarized here, appear to support several of the notions and corollaries from both Canale and Swain's and Cummins' model. The LI-study, and this study in its footsteps, demonstrate that there is more to L2 proficiency than "just" knowledge of words and linguistic rules. It is the type of task in which this knowledge has to be applied that plays a crucial moderating role. Or, formulated in terms of Bachman and Palmer's measurement approach, a crucial role is played by the method with which the linguistic skills are measured. A paper-and-pencil reading test, a face-to-face interview, and a story-telling task all measure linguistic skills but each does so in a very different way, and along with different nonlinguistic skills.

The fact that this could be demonstrated is due to two requirements that are so fundamental that they can easily be overlooked. For different factors to manifest themselves it is first of all necessary that measures be used that differ greatly in linguistic and nonlinguistic demands. Secondly, the testees should form a nonhomogeneous group in terms of background variables (e.g., L2 exposure) and/or personal variables (e.g., age). To use Cziko's (1982) terms, a factor analytic study should be designed in such a way as to maximize the between-skill variance as well as the within-skill variance.

In a factor analytic study, this requirement might imply that the test be designed such that it contains a sufficient number of "items" to reliably test the presence or absence of specific linguistic features on the illocutionary level. Paradoxically, this requirement can under some circumstances violate the unstructured, spontaneous nature of oral communication, thereby inadvertently changing what was meant to be a communicative test into a school type of knowledge test. Thus, an extraordinary call is made upon the test designer's ingenuity if he or she wishes to construct communicative, norm-referenced tests that aim to maximize individual differences, while attempting to test learners' skill in performing certain specific speech acts, e.g., the expressions for specific conversational moves, the expressions of specific sociolinguistic conventions, and specific cohesion devices. Perhaps a solution can be found by increasing the number of tests while reducing their length. This will result in a large number of mini-tests each consisting of a short role-play interaction. The structured nature of these tests could be guaranteed by specific instructions prior to their administration, while their genuine communicative nature could be secured by the physical presence and participation of an interlocutor and by the oral administration mode under real time constraints. The three telephone conversation tests in the LI-study constituted a succcessful step in this direction.

In the paper already mentioned, Cziko suggests that future research should investigate the influence of specific background and personal variables on specific aspects of L2 proficiency, rather than attempt to empirically test general models of components of L2 proficiency, that primarily serve a descriptive function. In a similar vein, Vollmer (1981) recommends a research shift away from studies that have as their main objective to provide evidence for or against some single-factor or multi-factor model. Vollmer suggests that future research should focus on the question: what precisely are the cognitive processes required in a given L2 proficiency test? On the one hand, what psycholinguistic skills are involved, typical for first and second language use, and on the other hand, what general problem-solving skills are involved?

Presumably, one of the main challenges to researchers of second language acquisition is to elaborate and refine, on the cognitive level, such notions as grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence, and especially the constructs academic language proficiency and context embeddedness. The acquisition and development of these narrowly-defined skills can then be studied in terms of background and personal variables. One of the most relevant issues for second language teaching and bilingual education, in this context, is the question of which of these skills can best be acquired through the use of the mother tongue and subsequently easily transferred to the second language. Until at least some theory construction and testing at this more detailed level has been accomplished, many of the educational issues can be resolved only on the basis of very general, and therefore inconclusive, models of second language proficiency and second language acquisition.

Table 1

Varimax Rotated Three-Factor Solution for 26 Variables

	Variables*	F_1	F_2	F_3	h^2
1	Vocabulary	.73	.56	-.17	.88
2	Reading	.72	.47	-.24	.80
4	Antonyms	.66	.57	.02	.77
5	Sentence Repetition	.70	.52	-.00	.77
77	Interview: One-token Turns	-.80	-.12	-.30	.75
78	Tokens	.53	.30	.58	.70
82	Continuations	.48	.27	.47	.52
89	Non-answers	-.87	-.26	-.26	.89
86	Idiomatic Expressions	.22	.71	.06	.55
81	Spontaneous Turns	.31	.20	.78	.75
92	I's Repetitions of own Questions	-.22	-.39	.49	.44
94	I's Comments	.35	.34	.77	.83
104	Interview & All Calls: Latencies	-.40	-.44	-.34	.47
105	Interview: Hesitations	-.02	-.18	.77	.63
96	Tel. Answering: One-token Turns	-.19	-.80	-.20	.72
40	Types	.32	.85	.05	.82
98	Spontaneous Turns	.32	.27	.33	.28
99	Call Placing: One-token Turns	-.30	-.65	-.10	.53
55	Types	.18	.48	-.08	.27
110	All Calls: Idiomatic Expressions	.21	.67	.26	.56
66	Picnic Story: Tokens	.74	.28	.09	.64
67	Types	.76	.37	.14	.74
68	Clauses	.81	.27	.15	.75
69	I's Elicitations	-.78	-.13	-.27	.69
108	Connectors	.83	.25	.25	.81
103	Speech Rate	.77	.38	.20	.79
	Eigenvalues	12.87	2.81	1.66	17.34
	Total variance explained	52%	11%	7%	70%

*All Variables are proportions except for Vs 1,2,4,5,40,55,66,67,68,69.

Table 2

Varimax Rotated Two-Factor Solution for 8 Variables

Variables*		F_1	F_2	h^2
40	Telephone Answering: Types	.17	.67	.47
67	Picnic Story: Types	.27	.85	.80
70	Pronouns	.33	.66	.55
108	Connectors	.29	.74	.63
30	Interview: Idiomatic Expressions	.60	.47	.58
81	Spontaneous Turns	.93	.17	.89
94	I's Comments	.85	.34	.83
78	Tokens	.86	.38	.88
Eigenvalues		4.64	.98	5.63
Total variance explained		64%	13%	77%

*All variables are proportions, except for V40 and V30

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APPENDIX C

Transfer in the Written Compositions of French Immersion Students*

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The phenomenon of first language (L1) transfer in second language (L2) acquisition can profitably be examined from a variety of perspectives. One approach is to analyze the L2 errors that learners of different mother tongues make and specify the ways in which L1 transfer contributes to such errors. Another approach is to compare the language produced by L2 learners with that produced under similar circumstances by native speakers. Under this approach, which is the one to be used here, the concern is not so much with errors per se as with the extent to which form-function relationships in the interlanguage of the learners can be considered to differ systematically from those produced by native speakers. At issue is the extent to which such differences can be predicted from a contrastive analysis of the relevant L1 and L2.

More specifically, the purpose of this paper is to investigate the hypothesis that L2 learners may distribute semantic information across syntactic elements in their L2 production in ways which conform more to the conventions of a closely related L1 than to those of the L2. This hypothesized tendency, it should be stressed, would not necessarily lead to outright errors in the L2.

The Data Base

The data for the study consist of 44 compositions in French, half of them written by English-speaking students enrolled in a French immersion program in the city of Ottawa, and the other half written by native French-speaking students at school in Montreal. The students were all at the grade 6 level, i.e. 11-12 years of age. There was an equal number of boys and girls in the native speaker group, with 13 boys and 9 girls in the immersion group. The native speakers were from a single class, while the English-speaking students were randomly selected from two classes in different schools in the Ottawa region.

At grade 6, these L2 learners were in their seventh year of an 'early total French immersion' program that had begun in kindergarten with a half-day of instruction in French, followed by two years during which all subjects were taught in French throughout the school day. In grade 3, a daily period of English language arts had been introduced, and by grade 6 the students were receiving about half their curriculum in English and half in French. An important feature of such immersion programs is that the focus is on the use of the L2 for communication rather than on formal grammatical study of the L2 code (see Swain and Lapkin, 1982). Thus the program provides an acquisitionally rich environment compared with traditional formal language classrooms. However, it is also the case, as in traditional L2 classrooms, that the students share a common L1. While the teacher does not speak English to the students, and the use of French by students in the classroom is firmly established once they are comfortable in the L2 (after about one and a half years of the program), English remains the dominant language of communication for the students outside the classroom and in the community. In these circumstances we might expect L1 transfer to continue to be a factor in the L2 production of the students.

The students in the sample were given 15 minutes in which to write a short composition of up to 12 lines entitled Au secours! ('Help!) about the rescue of a kitten from a tree (see Appendix 1). The opening of the story was supplied, placing the kitten asleep on a verandah and leaving unfinished a sentence beginning: Tout d'un coup trois chiens ('Suddenly three dogs').

The composition was one of several tasks completed by the students which were designed to assess grammatical skills in the target language, and in particular their accuracy in the use of verb forms, prepositions, and syntax (syntax being defined as errors of omission, addition, substitution, and permutation, aside from verbs and prepositions). Scores in the form of error rates were obtained for use in a large-scale study designed to test a model of language proficiency. The framework on which this model-testing study is based involves three hypothesized components of language proficiency: grammatical competence, discourse competence, and sociolinguistic competence. The data reported on here represent a subsample of the large amount of data collected in the context of this proficiency study.

In the course of scoring the compositions, it was observed that there were some errors that were hard to classify as specific to a particular part of speech, and that there were also occasions when a sentence would appear nonnative-like without containing outright errors. In light of these observations, it was decided to carry out a detailed analysis of some of the immersion students' compositions in comparison with those produced by the native speakers.

Two considerations suggested that use of prepositions might provide an appropriate focus for the study: (a) the composition, Au secours!, provided the opportunity to use a variety of spatial expressions; and (b) previous studies had indicated that prepositions were an area of French where English-speaking learners appeared to have continuing problems with L1 transfer. According to Holmes, for example, who examined 'anglicisms' in the French writing assignments of first- and second-year students at an Ontario university: "If I had to choose one specific area in which the greatest number of anglicisms are made, I should without hesitation say: prepositions" (Holmes, 1977, p. 526). The students Holmes is referring to had presumably taken French throughout secondary school. Similarly, in a recent report on the French skills of secondary school students who had been attending French immersion programs, some of them since kindergarten, it was observed that of those errors that were classified as anglicisms, the largest proportion (about one third) were identified as preposition errors (Morrison, Pawley and Bonyun, 1982).

Preliminary Analysis

Preliminary inspection of the Au secours! stories produced by the students revealed that they contained a very similar series of events, although not every student included all of the following:

(1) Arrival of dogs
(2) Flight and/or chase of cat
(3) Cat's ascent of tree
(4) Departure of dogs
(5) Rescue of cat

These events clearly involve several changes of location. The issue, then, is how these events were expressed linguistically by the L2 learners in comparison with the native speakers. Let us first consider briefly how spatial notions are characteristically encoded in English and French, keeping in mind that our particular focus is on prepositions.

Spatial expressions in English and French. It is customary to distinguish two main kinds of spatial expression: locative and directional (see e.g. Bennett, 1975). A locative sentence indicates where someone or something is (e.g. John is at school/Jean est à l'école) while a directional sentence specifies a change of location (e.g. Mary went to school/Marie est allée à l'école). In English, prepositions generally serve an important role in conveying the location/direction contrast. Some prepositions, for example, can be arranged in contrasting pairs: at/to, in/into, on/onto. Thus the English speaker when relating an event can rely solely on the preposition to express the locative The children rode their bicycles in the park, as opposed to the directional The children rode their bicycles into the park. Other simple or complex prepositions may be perceived as primarily locative (e.g. *behind*, *in front of*, *above*, *below*) or directional in meaning (*up*, *down*, *from*, *out of*, *across*, *through*, *towards*) (see e.g. Bennett, 1975, p. 24, pp. 92-93), although this does not preclude their use in other contexts. In response to the locative question *Where is Anne?*, for example, we may respond: *She's out of the office right now*. Similarly, the *in/into* and *on/onto* distinction may be neutralized in the form of *in* or *on* when directional information is provided elsewhere. For example, in the sentences *She went in the store*, *He fell in the water*, *The milk spilled on the floor*, the directional information is provided by the verb. In general, however, we may regard it as characteristic of English that prepositions carry a major load in specifying the locative/direction distinction.

In French, this is generally not the case. Common prepositions such as *à*, *dans*, *en*, and *sur* are neutral with respect to the locative/direction contrast, as are almost all other spatial prepositions (except, e.g. *vers* 'towards', *jusqu'à* 'up to' and *de* 'from'). The prepositional phrase *dans le parc* remains unchanged in the sentences: *Les enfants se sont promenés dans le parc* (locative), and *Les enfants sont entrés dans le parc* (directional). These sentences exemplify a general tendency in French and other Romance languages to express the location/direction contrast elsewhere in the sentence than in the preposition. Clark , for example, observes that in Romance languages verbs of motion "typically combine notions of motion with those of direction" in contrast to English where "verbs usually combine motion with manner rather than direction" (Clark, in press, ms. p. 47). Vinay and Darbelnet (1975, pp. 105-107) provide examples of how manner in French often needs to be expressed in a prepositional phrase rather than in the verb: thus English *blown away* is translatable as French *emporté par le vent* and *She tiptoed down the stairs* becomes *Elle descendit l'escalier sur la pointe des pieds*. It may be observed that it is only in the locative example provided above that manner is indicated in the verb *se sont promenés*.

In terms of our transfer hypothesis, then, we would expect to find the French L2 production of English-speaking immersion students reflecting these characteristic differences of English and French, and in particular we expect to find them relying heavily on prepositions to express the notion of direction. Note that this presupposes a certain level of competence in French. If a student does not express manner at all and uses only the most general verb of motion aller, then this verb shares with its English equivalent 'to go' the general meaning of motion + direction. Thus in the context of this verb, even in English, the location/direction distinction is frequently neutralized in the preposition.

The location/direction contrast is, of course, only one of a number of spatial distinctions that may be expressed. Both in English and in French, prepositions carry an important load in assigning spatial dimensions to an object, event, etc. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1972, pp. 308-316) distinguish various types of spatial dimension regularly expressed in English prepositions. In the phrase at the door, for example, unmarked at identifies the door as "a dimensionless location, a vague 'point on the map', and no details concerning its shape or size come into focus" (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 308). The preposition at can be contrasted with on which indicates a location of either one or two dimensions, a line or a surface (e.g. on the coast, on the door). A third preposition, in, specifies either a two-dimensional area or a three-dimensional volume (in the park, in the box). Other prepositions express spatial relationships on vertical and horizontal axes (above/below, in front of/behind/beside), and location in relation to other objects (e.g. near, between, among).

The same kinds of spatial distinctions, thought to be based on universal human perceptual attributes (Clark, 1973), are to be found in French prepositions. À la porte, sur la côte, and dans la boîte, for example, are translation equivalents for the basic at/on/in distinctions noted above while similar contrasts such as au dessus de/au dessous de, devant/derrière/à côté de can be found on the vertical and horizontal axes and the same spatial relationships to other objects may be encoded as près de, entre and parmi.

These kinds of lexical correspondences may encourage English-speaking learners to assume complete congruence between the English and French prepositional systems, at least in the spatial domain. In this assumption they would, of course, be wrong, since different spatial aspects of particular events may be more or less regularly encoded by each language, and in either language there may be instances where individual prepositions have become so closely associated with specific verbs or adverbial phrases that their use is grammatically determined. Place names are an obvious example of adverbials involving such predetermined use of prepositions: the English locative expression in Canada becomes au Canada in French, while in France is realized as en France. Holmes (1977, p. 527) cites *dans les Etats-Unis ('In the United States') as a typical anglophone error. The same kind of phenomenon can be observed in common adverbial expressions such as at home (chez + moi, nous, lui etc. in French). Morrison et al. (1982), for example, observe the error *en école 'in school' in the writing of grade 10 immersion students. With respect to verbs, we find common verbs such as look (at) in English and entrer (dans) in French requiring the use of the preposition whenever the goal of the action is specified. In each case, the preposition is generally not required in the other language (regarder in French and enter in English normally take direct objects). Again these verbs are cited as ones that are particularly troublesome for English-speaking learners (Holmes, 1977).

In examining the spatial uses of prepositions by the grade 6 immersion students and native French-speakers we can anticipate that such grammatical considerations will intersect with semantic ones in influencing the choice of particular forms. To the extent possible, however, the intention of this study is to isolate semantically motivated 'local' uses rather than grammatically constrained choices of prepositions in the written production of the two groups.

The Findings

The compositions written by the native speakers were on average about 20 per cent longer than those produced by the immersion students. Among the native speakers, the mean length of composition was 89.9 words,[1] while among the immersion students, the mean length was 73.3 words. Despite this difference in length, the immersion students used just as many prepositions ($\bar{X} = 5.41$) to express spatial relationships as did the native speakers ($\bar{X} = 5.00$). As will be demonstrated, however, the way in which such prepositions were used in the immersion compositions differed in some respects from the way in which they were used by the native speakers.

Tables 1 and 2 provide an overall summary of the prepositions produced by each group in spatial expressions, together with some basic information concerning their occurrence in locative and directional expressions. It may be noted that as well as producing just as many instances of such prepositions overall, the immersion students also produced as many different simple and complex prepositions in spatial contexts as the native speakers.[2] (About 20 different prepositions were produced by each group.) An additional similarity may be observed in the number of times prepositions were used in a locative (positional) sense by the two groups (20+ times by each group.)

(Tables 1 and 2 about here)

The main difference between the groups occurs in the context of directional expressions. As can be seen from a comparison of the second columns of Tables 1 and 2, the immersion students were more likely to use a non-directional verb of motion (such as courir 'to run') + preposition to express a directional event than were the native speakers. There were 37 such uses by the immersion students compared with nine uses by the native speakers. Moreover, when the native speakers used a non-directional verb of motion + preposition to express a directional event, they invariably used a preposition, or prepositional phrase, that was marked for direction (e.g. après, vers, jusqu'à, dans tous les sens[3]). The immersion students, on the other hand, did not consistently do so. Most striking is their frequent use of the unmarked preposition à as an equivalent for English directional 'to'. In the sentence le chat courait a la maison 'the cat ran home', produced by one immersion student (imm 12), a directional meaning is intended, as we know from the context since the cat was not in the house, but this meaning is not unambiguously realized in French by the preposition à. Either the student should have written: Le chat a couru jusqu'à la maison, marking the preposition for direction, or, more in keeping with the above contrastive analysis: Le chat est rentré chez lui 'the cat returned home', indicating direction in the verb. A sentence of the latter nature was, in fact, produced by a native speaker (ns 3): le petit chat ... rentre chez lui content de revoir ses maîtres 'the kitten returns home happy to see his owners'.

Appendix 2 displays all the instances of courir produced by the immersion students and the native speakers. It shows that this verb, expressing motion and manner, was used more frequently by the immersion students than by the native speakers. At the same time, in keeping with the tendency noted for English, in directional expressions courir was in most cases combined by the immersion students with a prepositional phrase which, it is clear from the context, was intended to indicate direction. While the native speakers used only eight such prepositional phrases in association with courir (mostly involving the preposition après), immersion students used 27, thus accounting for the difference between the second columns of Tables 1 and 2.

The immersion students, as Appendix 2 illustrates, did not only use prepositions unmarked for the directional distinction in the context of verbs such as courir, but appeared in some cases to be marking direction by means of complex prepositions involving *jusqu'* or *juste* in combination with other forms: e.g. *Le chat reposer court jusqu'au haut d'un arbre* 'the cat having rested runs up to the top of a tree' (imm 2). Seven such complex prepositional forms were produced altogether by the immersion students (see Table 2). In contrast, the preposition *jusqu'à* was used only once among the native speakers (in association with the verb *marcher* 'to walk'): *puis il marcha dessus jusqu'au tronc de l'arbre* 'then he walked on it right to the tree trunk' (ns 7).

The first column of Table 1 suggests that the native speakers were altogether much more likely to be marking direction in the verb than they were in prepositions. Only *de*, *par*, *vers*, and *par-dessus* in column 1 help provide directional information, leaving 56 verbs + prepositional phrases where the verb alone was marked for direction. As further analysis of the main events of the story will illustrate, there were also many occasions when directional verbs were used by the native speakers without additional spatial information being indicated in an adverbial phrase. Among the immersion students, on the other hand, even the use of directional verbs tended more often to be associated with a prepositional phrase indicating spatial relationships.

Arrival of dogs. A majority of the students in each group (15 native speakers and 18 immersion students) opened their compositions with some indication of motion of the dogs towards the cat or onto the scene. Among the native speakers, *arriver* was the most frequent verb used (nine instances), followed by *venir* (two instances) and one instance each of *approcher*, *s'envenir*, *se diriger* and *sauter*. Of these 15 verb tokens, nine were used without any further specification of the source or goal of the action in the form of an associated adverbial phrase or direct object. For example, one student writes *(Tout d'un coup trois chiens) sont venu et ils ont vu le chat qui dormait* '(Suddenly three dogs) came and saw the cat sleeping' (ns 12). Other students simply concluded their opening sentence with a verb: *(Tout d'un coup trois chiens) arrivent*. '(Suddenly three dogs) arrive.' (ns 4, 15, 20). Among the immersion students, venir was the most frequent verb used (nine instances), followed by courir (five instances), sauter (two instances), attack (sic) and aller (one instance each). Of these 18 instances, only four cases of a verb (in all cases venir) occurred without an associated adverbial phrase or, in the context of attack, a direct object. On ten occasions it was the goal that was specified with the action: (Tout d'un coup trois chiens) ont allé sur le balcon '(Suddenly three dogs) went onto the balcony' (imm 16). The source of the action was also indicated three times in association with venir: (Tout d'un coup trois chiens) venaient d'un maison voisinage '(Suddenly three dogs) came from a neighbouring house' (imm 20). In sum, it appears that in the context of this event (the arrival of the dogs), the immersion subjects, even when they used a directional verb such as venir, were more likely than the native speakers to provide additional directional information in the form of a prepositional phrase.

Flight and/or chase of cat. A tendency for the immersion students to rely more heavily on prepositional phrases to express directional information may also be observed in the next event that was frequently included in the stories of both groups: the flight of the cat from the dogs. Fifteen native speakers and 14 immersion students referred to such an event in their stories, and several of the students in each group used more than one verb of motion in this context. Altogether there were 32 verbs of motion produced by the native speakers, and 31 produced by the immersion students. Among both groups, courir was by far the most frequently used verb (17 instances among the native speakers and 20 among the immersion students). Other verbs of a directional nature were also used: e.g. passer, s'enfuir, partir, sauter, suivre by the native speakers, and aller, chasser, venir, sortir, suivre by the immersion students. The native speakers used 15 verbs (including nine instances of courir) without specifying further directional information in an adverbial phrase or direct object, while the immersion students used fewer such unaccompanied verbs (ten instances, including six of courir). Conversely, while the native speakers used 13 prepositional phrases, the immersion students used 19 such phrases to specify further spatial relationships not incorporated in the verb, thus consistent with the expected trend.

Cat's ascent of tree. The motion of the cat into the tree was explicitly stated by 21 native speakers and 18 immersion students. In almost all cases the tree was specified in a prepositional phrase or as a direct object. In expressing this event then, it appears at first sight that the native speakers relied as heavily on prepositional phrases as the immersion students to express the spatial relationships involved. A closer look, however, reveals that the native speakers were in general much more explicit in expressing the idea of motion on a vertical axis than were the immersion students, mainly because of the directional verbs of motion that they used. The majority of native speakers, for example, used the verbs monter 'to go up' and grimper 'to climb' (17 instances out of a total of 24 verb tokens), serving to indicate upward motion. In most cases (13 instances) these verbs occurred in association with the prepositional phrase dans un arbre, or dans l'arbre, where the preposition dans itself cannot be considered to be marked for either direction or verticality, but instead may be regarded as conditioned, though not entirely determined by the choice of lexical verb. Other verbs used by the native speakers included sauter, s'agripper 'to grab hold', se rendre 'to get (to)' and se refugier 'to take refuge', which do not necessarily imply upward motion. In the context of such verbs (seven instances), native speakers appeared to be making somewhat more vertically oriented use of prepositions. Sur, for example, occurred twice with sauter: il est sauter sur une branche de l'arbre (ns 18) 'he jumped on(to) a branch of the tree', and once with se rendre: Le chat sauta du balcon et se rendit sur un arbre (ns 21) 'the cat jumped off the verandah and onto a tree'. On one occasion, the distinctively vertical preposition en haut de was used: le chat s'est refugié en haut d'un arbre (ns 15) 'the cat took refuge up a tree'. Thus, when focussing more on the manner of the cat's arrival in the tree, which they sometimes did, the native speakers provided more vertically-oriented information in an associated prepositional phrase.

Among the 18 immersion students who referred to this event, the verb monter was used only twice and grimper three times. Preferred verbs were sauter (five instances) and courir (five instances). The verb chasser, used in the sense of 'to chase', also occurred twice. When a prepositional phrase was used, the preposition was in most cases dans (11 instances), which as already noted does not of itself provide vertical or directional information. In this context, then, it appears that the immersion students provide more directional information in the kinds of verbs that they use (except for courir). A relevant factor may be that in English the kinds of verbs that might have been used in this context (e.g. climb, jump) would also be sufficiently directional that a preposition specifically marked for direction would not have been obligatory: e.g. The kitten climbed (up) the tree, The cat jumped on(to) a branch. Significantly, it is in the context of other verbs that in English would have required vertical/directional marking in an associated preposition that we find the immersion students sometimes marking verticality in French: Le chat reposer court jusqu'au haut d'un arbre (imm 2) 'The cat having rested ran up to the top of a tree'; le chat a couré en haut de l'arbre (imm 13) 'the cat ran up the tree'; Ils ... a le chasser haut dans un arbre (imm 20) 'They chased ... it up high into a tree'. In short, the immersion students did not in general mark verticality as regularly as the native speakers, and when they did so explicitly it was almost as likely to be in a prepositional context as in a verb.

Departure of dogs. The dogs' departure from the scene was referred to by 14 native speakers and 13 immersion students. The immersion students tended once again to incorporate less directional information in the verb and to make slightly more use of prepositional phrases containing spatial information. The native speakers often used verbs such as partir 'to leave' (seven instances), s'en aller 'to go away' (four instances), and s'en retourner 'to return' (one instance), which incorporated the notion of source within the verb. Only one prepositional phrase of a spatial nature was used: Les chiens ... s'en retournèrent chez eux (ns 9) 'the dogs ... went back home'. Verbs with an implied source such as partir and s'en aller also occurred in the compositions of the immersion students but considerably less frequently (four instances), and there were a few more instances than among the native speakers of prepositional phrases providing spatial information (four instances). Other verbs of motion used included aller, courir, and several instances of transitive verbs: e.g. un petit garçon venais et chassais les chiens a ses maison (imm 18) 'a little boy came and chased the dogs to their house'.

Rescue of cat. The rescue of the cat took a variety of forms in the students' compositions. Here the focus is on how the descent from the tree was expressed. Of the 20 native speakers who expressed the notion of the cat's descent or removal from the tree, the most common verbs were the vertically oriented descendre and redescendre (ten instances combined) used both transitively and intransitively: e.g. Le petit chat redescend de l'arbre (ns 4) 'The kitten comes back down from the tree'; elle descendit le chat (ns 6) 'she brought the cat down'. In association with these two verbs, the source de l'arbre was specified only twice and no other spatially relevant prepositional phrases were supplied. Other verbs used transitively by the native speakers were prendre (five instances) in the sense of 'to take hold of', mettre, sauver and chercher (each used twice). Three uses of spatial prepositional phrases occurred in association with *mettre* 'to put' and *prendre*: e.g. *Il le pris dans ses bras* (ns 11) 'He took it in(to) his arms'.

In contrast to the native speakers, of the 16 immersion students who referred to the rescue of the cat, only three used the verbs *descendre* or *redescendre*. The most frequently used verb was *prendre* (5 instances) sometimes used in a more general sense of 'to take' rather than 'to take hold of': e.g. *J'ai essayer de monter et prendre le chat au sol* (imm 22) 'I tried to go up and take the cat to the ground'. Other verbs included *sauter*, *mettre*, *apporter* and *aider*: *son ami humain vien et aide lui au gazon* (imm 13) 'his human friend comes and helps him to the lawn'. In all, including the two examples just cited, the immersion students supplied 13 prepositional phrases specifying e.g. the source (the tree) or, more often, the goal (usually the ground) of the action. In one case, both source and goal are indicated: *Le chat a donc sauter d'arbre sur ce piece de bois* (imm 13) 'The cat then jumped from (the) tree on(to) this piece of wood'. In sum, in referring to the cat's rescue the immersion students were much more likely to specify spatial relationships in prepositional phrases than were the native speakers, and much less likely to indicate vertical direction in the verb.

Conclusions

The findings that have been presented provide support for the hypothesis that the English-speaking immersion students, in expressing the spatial notion of direction in French, would show a systematic tendency to rely more heavily on prepositions than the native speakers.

In the analysis it has been observed that this tendency is in keeping with an overall trend in the students' English L1. At the same time, it is possible that the tendency to use adverbial means at first to express direction may be a natural developmental stage in language acquisition. With reference to L1 acquisition of Romance languages, for example, Clark (in press, ms. p. 47) observes that:

> Although there has been no systematic study of how young children acquiring a Romance language begin to express motion, direction, and manner, some observations suggest that children acquiring Spanish seem to begin by trying to combine motion and manner in the verb and expressing direction with a locative adverb...

While it would clearly be premature to assume that the findings of the present study are in line with a natural developmental stage in the acquisition of Romance languages, this possibility is an interesting one that is not inconsistent with the interpretation of L1 transfer. In previous studies of immersion students' oral production, for example, it has frequently been observed that there may be several interacting and mutually-supporting sources for the systematic interlanguage characteristics that are found (e.g. Harley, 1982; Harley and Swain, 1978; Swain, 1976). From a theoretical perspective, too, it has been argued that L1 transfer to a near-congruent L2 is promoted when an L1 structure "conforms more closely to general acquisition regularities or processes than the L2 structure to be acquired" (Zobl, 1980, p. 470). Among the acquisition regularities that have been suggested to apply in combination with L1 transfer (see Andersen, 1981, p. 7) is a tendency is to give expression to semantic notions in the form of "FREE, INVARIANT, functionally SIMPLE morphemes which are congruent with the L1 and the L2". Certainly in expressing direction the immersion students were showing a preference for the use of free, invariant prepositions (they made frequent errors of amalgamation such as *de le or *à le instead of du and au) rather than inflected verbs. It is less clear whether their use of prepositions at this stage fulfills the 'functionally simple' condition, however.

Further research is needed to determine whether a similar distribution of spatial information in syntactic form occurs among L2 learners of French, whose L1s are organized in other ways in the spatial domain. Equally interesting from the perspective of how L1 transfer is constrained is the question of whether French-speaking learners of English would transfer the tendency noted in French for verbs to carry the burden of indicating direction. If this were the case, then a more powerful determining role for L1 transfer (relative to 'general acquisition regularities') might be indicated.

From an educational perspective, the crucial question is how best to 'treat' the continued presence of systematic L1 transfer in the L2 production of immersion students after several years in the program. This, of course, depends on our interpretation of how such transfer may have arisen. Two aspects to this issue are suggested by the concepts of 'knowledge' and 'control' developed by Bialystok and Bouchard Ryan (in press), and by our informal observations in immersion classrooms. First, the L2 input to which the students have been exposed appears to have led them to a knowledge of the L2 that assumes greater congruence with the L1 than in fact exists; and, secondly, the students may not have had an adequate opportunity to develop processing control in production of the L2. Swain (1982) for example, has observed that as the grade level increases, the opportunities to practise speaking the L2 may actually decline. These considerations lead to the conclusion that classroom experiments are needed to examine the effect of providing more focussed L2 input in immersion classrooms and creating further ample opportunities for meaningful use of the L2 in specific areas. Such input would need to take account of deep-seated differences between the L1 and L2 as well as the inherent complexities of the L2 system.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Words were defined as strings of symbols that were separated by spaces from one another. Thus l'arbre or qu'il counted as one word, while au dessus de counted as three.

[2] The immersion students' prepositions were not always native-like in form, as can be seen from Table 2 (e.g. au bas de rather than en bas de).

[3] The phrase dans tous les sens was actually misspelled as dans tout les sence. In further examples from student compositions, spelling will be in its original form. Glosses in English should, of course, be regarded as approximate.

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Table 1

Spatial Uses of Prepositions by Native Speakers

Preposition	Dir. event + dir. vb.	Dir. event - dir. vb.	Ambig. loc./dir.	Locative expression	Total
dans	33	1	1	4	39
sur	11			4	15
à	4		1	6	11
de	10				10
chez	5			1	6
après		5			5
en haut de				4	4
par	2		1		3
vers	1	2			3
devant				2	2
en dessous de	2				2
entre				2	2
par-dessus	2				2
autour de			1		1
derrière				1	1
en				1	1
jusqu'à		1			1
près de			1		1
Total	70	9	5	25	109

Table 2

Spatial Uses of Prepositions by Immersion Students

Preposition	Dir. event + dir. vb.	Dir. event - dir. vb.	Ambig. loc./dir.	Locative expression	Total
dans	15	5	2	7	29
à	6	17	3	2	28
de	14				14
sur	7	3		2	12
au bas de	3	1		2	6
après		5			5
jusqu'à[1]	3	2			5
chez	1			2	3
devant				2	2
en	2				2
près de				2	2
autour de				1	1
avant			1		1
dedans	1				1
derrière			1		1
en haut de		1			1
juste au dessus de		1			1
jusqu'au haut de		1			1
près de	1				1
raprocher de[2]	1				1
sous				1	1
vers		1			1
Total	54	37	7	21	119

[1] Includes malformed *juste au* (one instance)
[2] Instead of *proche de*

APPENDIX 1

- Au-secours!

Ecris une petite histoire sur le sauvetage d'un petit chat se trouvant dans le haut d'un arbre.

Commence avec le début suivant:

C'était un beau dimanche d'été et sur le balcon de la maison des Dupont

un petit chat dormait tranquillement. Tout d'un coup trois chiens _______

Appendix 2

Immersion Students' and Native Speakers' Uses of the Verb 'courir'

Subj.	Uses of 'courir' (with prepositional phrases intended to express direction underlined)
imm 1	-(trois chiens) a couru juste au dessus de la balcon
imm 2	-Ils courent après lui
	-trop fatigué pour courir un autre pas
	-Le chat reposer court jusqu'au haut d'un arbre
imm 3	-(trois chiens) couraient à l'arbre
imm 5	-(trois chiens) courait après le chat
	-Elle a couré jusqu'a une arbre
	-Le chat a ... vu les chiens qui courait et puis ...
	-Alors, j'ai couré vite a le personne
imm 6	-mais le petit chat courer le plus qu'il pouvait
	-le petit chat ne pouvait pas courir
	-Le petit chat a presque tomber mort de courir
imm 7	-Ils couraient après lui
imm 8	-Les trois chiens court au bas de l'arbre
imm 9	-les chiens cour a le balcon
	-Les chiens cour mais le chat ...
	-et les trois cour très vite à la rue
imm 10	-et cour a l'arbre
	-Marie cour sur Flur
imm 11	-(trois chiens) couraient jusqu'au balcon
	-Le chat courait dans la maison
imm 12	-Le chat courait et courait et enfin il ...
	-Le chat courait a la maison
imm 15	-(trois chiens) viennent et courent après le chat
	-Le chat cour dans un arbre
imm 16	-une petite chat qui courait à la jungle
	-Il courait dans la jungle (locative?)
imm 17	-(trois chiens) ... ont couru sur le balcon
	-ils courent vers l'arbre en aboyant
imm 18	-Il court dans l'arbre
imm 19	-(trois chiens) cours sur le balcon
imm 20	-Le petit chat ... a courru à la maison
	-Les chiens ... courraient apprait le petit chat
imm 21	-(trois chiens) ... courait au direction du petit chat
	-il ... leva et coura quelques pas
	-Le petit chat coura dans un arbre

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ns 1	-les chiens ... cour vers le chat
ns 2	-Le chat a courru parce que les chiens courrait après
ns 3	-(trois chiens) ... courèrent après le petit minou
ns 4	-Le petit chat par à courir et les chien courent après lui

ns 5	-le chat ... commence à courir il monte ...
ns 9	-Les chiens se mirent à courir après le chat, le chat ... se mit à courir et grimpa ...
ns 10	-(trois chiens) courent après lui
ns 11	-les chiens partir a courir et le chat aussi
	-il courrait et courrait de plus en plus vite
ns 12	-ils ont commencer à courir après elle
	-Elle a courru très longtemps
	-elle ne pouvais plus courir. A ce moment ...
ns 17	-(trois chiens) se dirigent en courant vers le chat
	-Le chat tout affolé cours partout
ns 19	-affolé le petit chat couru et couru dans tout les sence
	-Il se mit à courir très très vite
ns 20	-Pendan les couraient il a grimper ...

APPENDIX D:1

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT)

SCHOOL
TEACHER
SUBJECT

GRADE(S)
LESSON (Min.)

DATE
OBSERVER

Part A
Page

Col.1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	
TIME	ACTIVITIES	PARTIC. ORGANIZATION							CONTENT																								STUDENT MODALITY					MATERIALS									
		Class			Group		Comb.		MAN.			LANGUAGE				OTHER TOPICS														TOPIC CONTROL								Type							Use		
																NARROW				LIMITED					BROAD													Text									
		T ↔ s/c	S ↔ s/c	Choral	Same	Different	Individual	Gr/Ind.	Procedure	Discipline		Form	Function	Discourse	Soc. Ling.	Classroom	Stereotyp.	Pers/Bio.	Other	Personal	Rout./Soc.	Fam./Com.	School T.	Other	Abstract	Pers./Ref.	Imagination	World T.	Other	Teacher	Teacher/Stud.	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	minimal	extended	Audio	Visual	Pedagogic	Semi-Pedag.	Non-Pedag.	High Control	Semi Control	Contr

APPENDIX D:2

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT)

Part B/P.

TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION																	STUDENT VERBAL INTERACTION																				
COMMUNIC. FEATURES		TARGET LANG.		INFORMATION GAP				SUST. SPEECH		REACTION CO/MES.	INCORPORATION of S. UTTERANCES							TARGET LANG.			INFORMATION GAP				SUST. SPEECH			FORM RESTR.			REACTION CO/MES.	INCORPORATION of S/T UTTERANCES					
				Giving Info.		Request Info.															Giving Info.		Request Info.														
No talk	Off-task	L_1	L_2	Predict.	Unpred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Minimal	Sustained	Explicit Code Reaction	No Incorp.	Repetition	Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion	Elaboration	Choral	L_1	L_2	Disc.-Initiation	Pred.	Unpred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Ultraminimal	Minimal	Sustained	Restricted	Limited	Unrestricted	Explicit Code Reaction	No Incorp.	Repetition	Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion	Elaboration

APPENDIX D:3

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT)

SCHOOL
TEACHER
SUBJECT Core French
GRADE(S) 6
LESSON (Min.) 40 minutes
Program: Vive le français
DATE Nov. 8, 1982
OBSERVER M/N
Par
Pag

Col. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46

TIME	ACTIVITIES	PARTIC. ORGANIZATION							CONTENT																							STUDENT MODALITY					MATERIAL							
		Class			Group		Comb.		MAN.		LANGUAGE				OTHER TOPICS														TOPIC CONTROL								Type							U
															NARROW				LIMITED					BROAD													Text							
		T↔ s/c	S↔ s/c	Choral	Same	Different	Individual	Gr/Ind.	Procedure	Discipline	Form	Function	Discourse	Soc. Ling.	Classroom	Stereotyp.	Pers/Bio.	Other	Personal	Rout./Soc.	Fam./Com.	School T.	Other	Abstract	Pers./Ref.	Imagination	World T.	Other	Teacher	Teacher/Stud.	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Minimal	Extended	Audio	Visual	Pedagogic	Semi-Pedag.	Non-Pedag.	High Control
9:0	Warm-up exercise - drill Greeting - Counting	✓		✓							✓	✓				✓																✓	✓											
9:07	Identifying objects in pictures Vocabulary Practice	✓									✓										✓											✓	✓							P		✓		✓
9:0	Dialogue Repetition	✓	✓	✓							✓										✓											✓	✓	✓				✓			✓			✓
9:10	Pronunciation Drill	✓									✓																					✓	✓				P ✓							✓
9:12	Dialogue Repetition Reading aloud	✓	✓	✓							✓										✓											✓	✓	✓				✓			✓			✓
9:15	Dialogue Repetition in pairs Substitution				✓						✓										✓											✓	✓	✓				✓			✓			✓
9:20	Pairs take roles and read dialogue to class	✓	✓								✓										✓											✓	✓	✓				✓			✓			✓
9:26	Reading aloud isolated sentences (homework correction) judging ~~content T/F questions.~~	✓									✓										✓											✓	✓	✓			OP ✓				✓			✓
9:28	Picture identification spelling (overhead projector)	✓									✓										✓											✓	✓				✓			P ✓	✓			✓
9:31	Writing - students write a short composition on my favorite dinner								✓		✓										✓													✓	✓			✓			✓			
9:30	Class ends																																											

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT)

Part B/P. 2

	TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION																	STUDENT VERBAL INTERACTION																			
	COMMUNIC. FEATURES		TARGET LANG.		INFORMATION GAP				SUST. SPEECH		REACTION CO/MES.	INCORPORATION of S. UTTERANCES							TARGET LANG.			INFORMATION GAP					SUST. SPEECH		FORM RESTR.			REACTION CO/MES.	INCORPORATION of S/T UTTERANCES				
					Giving Info.		Request Info.															Giving Info.		Request Info.													
CORE FRENCH - GR. 6	No talk	Off-task	L_1	L_2	Predict	Unpred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Minimal	Sustained	Explicit Code Reaction	No Incorp.	Repetition	Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion	Elaboration	Choral	L_1	L_2	Disc.-Initiation	Pred.	Unpred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Ultraminimal	Minimal	Sustained	Restricted	Limited	Unrestricted	Explicit Code Reaction	No Incorp.	Repetition	Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion
1st minute on Act. #2 Iden. Obj. Pictures				✓			✓		✓						✓					✓		✓				✓			✓								
				✓			✓		✓						✓					✓		✓				✓			✓								
				✓			✓		✓						✓					✓		✓				✓			✓								
				✓			✓		✓						✓					✓		✓				✓			✓								
				✓			✓		✓				✓		✓					✓		✓				✓			✓								
				✓			✓		✓				✓		✓					✓		✓				✓			✓								
2nd minute on Read Dialogue Aloud Act. #3				✓				✓	✓											✓				✓			✓		✓								
																				✓		✓					✓		✓								
				✓						✓					✓																						
				✓		✓	✓																														
				✓			✓		✓									✓		✓		✓					✓		✓								
				✓			✓	✓		✓								✓		✓		✓					✓		✓								
3rd minute on Dialogue Repetition Act. #5				✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓		✓					✓		✓								
				✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓		✓					✓		✓								
				✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓		✓					✓		✓								
				✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓		✓					✓		✓								
Management	✗		✓	✓			✓			✓																											
				✓			✓	✓		✓																											
4th minute on Dialogue Repetition Pairs Act. # 6																				✓		✓		✓			✓		✓								
																			✓				✓		✓		✓				✓						
																				✓		✓		✓			✓		✓								

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT)

SCHOOL
TEACHER
SUBJECT ESL Adult

GRADE(S) Beginner Level
LESSON (Min.) 3 hours
Observed for 1½ hours

DATE October 5, 1982
OBSERVER M/N

Part
Page

Col. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
		PARTIC. ORGANIZATION							**CONTENT**	
		Class			**Group**		**Comb.**		**MAN.**	
TIME	**ACTIVITIES**	T↔s/c	S↔s/c	Choral	Same	Different	Individual	Gr/Ind.	Procedure	Discipline
9:24	Conversation -Asking about the news	✓								
9:31	Grammar - Error Correction of Sts. prod. from previous class	✓								
9:35	Grammar ex. Question/Answer cond. 'if - probably'	✓								
9:46	Students make up own sentences using 'if-probably'	✓								
9:52	Grammar - 'might'	✓								
10:0	Question/ Answer Practice Expressing opinions	✓								
10:1	Conversation - Expressing Opinions - Mt. Everest Climb	✓	✓							

Col. 1	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
	CONTENT																		
		LANGUAGE				**OTHER TOPICS**													
						NARROW				**LIMITED**					**BROAD**				
TIME		Form	Function	Discourse	Soc. Ling.	Classroom	Stereotyp.	Pers/Bio.	Other	Personal	Rout./Soc.	Fam./Com.	School T.	Other	Abstract	Pers./Ref.	Imagination	World T.	Other
9:24																		✓	
9:31		✓			✓														
9:35		✓										✓							
9:46		✓								✓									
9:52		✓										✓							
10:0		✓	✓		✓							✓							
10:1		✓	✓		✓										✓			✓	

Col. 1	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39 40	41	42	43	44	45	46
	TOPIC CONTROL			**STUDENT MODALITY**					**MATERIALS**						
									Type						**U**
									Text						
TIME	Teacher	Teacher/Stud.	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Minimal - extended	Audio	Visual	Pedagogic	Semi-Pedag.	Non-Pedag.	High Control
9:24				✓	✓										
9:31				✓	✓										
9:35				✓	✓	✓			✓			✓			
9:46				✓	✓										
9:52				✓	✓	✓			✓		P ✓	✓			✓
10:0				✓	✓	✓			✓			✓			✓
10:1				✓	✓										

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT)

Part B/P. 1

	TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION																		STUDENT VERBAL INTERACTION																				
	COMMUNIC. FEATURES		TARGET LANG.		INFORMATION GAP				SUST. SPEECH		REACTION CO/MES.		INCORPORATION of S. UTTERANCES							TARGET LANG.			INFORMATION GAP				SUST. SPEECH			FORM RESTR.			REACTION CO/MES.		INCORPORATION of S/T UTTERANCES				
					Giving Info.		Request Info.																Giving Info.		Request Info.														
ESL Adult (Beg.)	No talk	Off-task	L_1	L_2	Predict	Unpred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Minimal	Sustained	Explicit Code	Reaction	No Incorp.	Repetition	Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion	Elaboration	Choral	L_1	L_2	Disc.-Initiation	Pred.	Unpred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Ultraminimal	Minimal	Sustained	Restricted	Limited	Unrestricted	Explicit Code	Reaction	No Incorp.	Repetition	Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion
1st minute on Error Correction Act. #2				✓		✓				✓	✓										✓		✓					✓		✓									
				✓			✓		✓		✓			✓	✓		✓				✓		✓					✓		✓									
				✓		✓				✓	✓						✓				✓		✓					✓		✓									
				✓		✓	✓			✓	✓			✓			✓				✓		✓					✓		✓									
						✓					✓																												
				✓		✓				✓	✓						✓				✓		✓					✓		✓									
				✓		✓				✓											✓		✓					✓		✓									
2nd minute on Management				✓		✓				✓																													
				✓		✓				✓																													
Grammar Exercise Act. #3	X			✓	✓		✓		✓												✓		✓					✓		✓									
3rd minute on Act. #3				✓	✓			✓								✓					✓		✓					✓		✓									
				✓			✓			✓								✓																					
4th minute on Act. #3				✓			✓			✓	✓						✓				✓		✓						✓		✓								
				✓		✓					✓				✓	✓																							
																		✓			✓			✓					✓		✓								
				✓			✓		✓																														

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT)

Part B/P.

	TEACHER VERBAL INTERACTION																		STUDENT VERBAL INTERACTION																				
	COMMUNIC. FEATURES		TARGET LANG.		INFORMATION GAP				SUST. SPEECH		REACTION CO/MES.		INCORPORATION of S. UTTERANCES							TARGET LANG.			INFORMATION GAP				SUST. SPEECH			FORM RESTR.			REACTION CO/MES.		INCORPORATION of S/T UTTERANCES				
					Giving Info.		Request Info.																Giving Info.		Request Info.														
ESL Adult (Beg.)	No talk	Off-task	L_1	L_2	Predict	Unpred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Minimal	Sustained	Explicit Code	Reaction	No Incorp.	Repetition	Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion	Elaboration	Choral	L_1	L_2	Disc.-Initiation	Pred.	Unpred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Ultraminimal	Minimal	Sustained	Restricted	Limited	Unrestricted	Explicit Code	Reaction	No Incorp.	Repetition	Paraphrase	Comment	Expansion
5th minute on Students make up their own sentences Act. #4				✓						✓						✓					✓		✓					✓			✓								
				✓												✓					✓			✓				✓											
				✓			✓											✓			✓				✓				✓	✓	✓								
				✓					✓									✓			✓			✓				✓											
				✓			✓	✓		✓				✓	✓			✓			✓			✓				✓			✓								
																					✓		✓						✓		✓								
				✓			✓	✓	✓									✓			✓			✓					✓		✓								
				✓				✓																															
6th minute on Students make up their own sentences Act. #4				✓				✓	✓												✓			✓				✓			✓								
				✓		✓				✓								✓			✓	✓		✓				✓			✓								
				✓				✓	✓		✓			✓							✓		✓					✓			✓								
				✓			✓			✓								✓			✓			✓				✓			✓								
				✓				✓	✓												✓	✓		✓				✓			✓								
7th minute on "might" Act. #5				✓		✓				✓																													
				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓																													
				✓			✓	✓							✓			✓			✓		✓	✓				✓				✓							
				✓				✓		✓											✓		✓	✓				✓			✓								
management																																							

APPENDIX D:4

Scorer:
School:
Program:
Grade:

Communicative Orientation of Classroom Verbal Interaction

Scale:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	never	rarely				frequently	always

Visit No.	Use of L2		Info. Gap (L2)		Sust. Speech (L2)		No. Expl. code react.		Extensions & Elab. (L2)		Stud. Disc. Init.(12)	Limit. & Unrestr. form (L2)	COS Proportions		COS $\overline{X}$
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	S	S	T(30)	S(42)	

APPENDIX D:5

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Date:

Name:

School:

1. How many students are enrolled in the class we have observed (will observe)?

2. Approximately how many minutes of instruction in the second language do the students get per week?

3. How long have the students been learning ______________?

4. What language/s do the students speak at home? If possible, indicate the approximate number of students for each language.

5. (a) What textbook/s (course book/s) are you using?

   (b) Do you like the textbook/s? Please indicate reasons for your answer.

6. Do you use any supplementary materials or organize activities which go beyond the suggestions of the textbook (course book)?

   No: Yes:

   If yes, please indicate (a) what kind of supplementary materials or activities:

   (b) how often you do this:

never	rarely	sometimes	often
____	____	____	____

7. Do you assign homework to your students?

No: Yes:

If yes, please give examples of the type of homework you frequently assign.

8. Do your students ever have to read longer passages, e.g. short stories, magazines, et

never rarely sometimes often

____ ____ ________ ____

9. Do your students ever have to write longer paragraphs, e.g. short stories, picture descriptions, short reports, etc.

never rarely sometimes often

____ ____ ________ ____

10. How do you evaluate your students? (e.g. what kind of tests, if any, do you give?)

11. Do your students participate in any extra-curricular activities which involve the use of the second language?

No: Yes:

If yes, please indicate (a) type of activity:

(b) the approximate number of students who participate:

12. What would you like your students to achieve in the second language this year?

Thank you for your co-operation. Please return the questionnaire to Maria Fröhlich, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 252 Bloor Street W., Toronto M5S 1V6

UQ6 ____________________

____

APPENDIX E:1

Name ____________________ ______________

Grade ____________________

School ____________________

Date of test ____________________

Date of birth ____________________

LANGUAGE USE QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR

GRADE 7 STUDENTS

April 1983

INSTRUCTIONS

Please use a pencil and answer the questions as carefully and correctly as possible. If you do not know the answer to a question, write "don't know". If you are not sure how to write something, please ask for help.

Some information questions should be answered by making an X in the appropriate box. Please read these questions carefully before deciding which box to check.

In some other questions you are asked to read certain statements and then circle a number between 1 and 5 which shows as closely as possible how you feel about each statement. Here are two examples:

1) I feel that the following foods taste delicious:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mixed Feelings	Agree	Strongly Agree
Strawberries	1	2	3	4	5
Liver	1	2	3	4	5
Turnips	1	2	3	4	5
Peas	1	2	3	4	5

2) The following things are important for good health:

	Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
Food	1	2	3	4	5
Movies	1	2	3	4	5
Skiing	1	2	3	4	5

Put up your hand if you have any problems.

Please fill in the blanks or check the appropriate answer(s) if a list is provided.

PART A

1) My birthday is ____________, ____________, ____________
year month day

Y/M ________

2) I was born in:

CANADA ☐ ____________, ____________
name the province name the place

MAINLAND PORTUGAL ☐ ____________, ____________
name the province name the place

AZORES ☐ ____________, ____________
name the island name the place

MADEIRA ☐ ____________
name the place

OTHER ☐ ____________, ____________
name the country name the place

R ________

3) The place I was born in is a
city ☐
town ☐
village ☐

____

If you were born in Toronto, skip the following PART B and go to PART C.

PART B

4) When I came to Toronto I was ____________ old.
age

____

5) Before I came to Toronto I lived in:

CANADA ☐ ____________, ____________
name the province, name the place

MAINLAND PORTUGAL ☐ ____________, ____________
name the province, name the place

AZORES ☐ ____________, ____________
name the island, name the place

R ____________

MADEIRA ☐ ____________
name the place

OTHER ☐ ____________, ____________
name the country, name the place

6) This place was a
city ☐
town ☐
village ☐

____

7) Before coming to Toronto did you live in any other place besides the one indicated above?

YES ☐ NO ☐

Y/N ____________

If yes, write
a) the name of the country ____________
b) the name of the province ____________
c) the name of the place ____________

R ____________

____

(If you have lived in other places, please list them below.)

PART C

		YES	NO	
8) I am now living with my	father	☐	☐	F ____
I am now living with my	mother	☐	☐	M ____
I am now living with my	brother(s)	☐	☐	B ____
I am now living with my	sister(s)	☐	☐	S ____
I am now living with my	grandparent(s)	☐	☐	G ____
I am now living with	other(s)	☐	☐	O ____

9) My father was born in:

CANADA	☐	____________, name the province	____________ name the place
MAINLAND PORTUGAL	☐	____________, name the province	____________ name the place
AZORES	☐	____________, name the island	____________ name the place
MADEIRA	☐	____________ name the place	
OTHER	☐	____________, name the country	____________ name the place

R ____

10) The place my father was born was a
- city ☐
- town ☐
- village ☐

____

11) He has attended:
- No school ☐
- Primary School (Grades 1 to 6) ☐
- Secondary School (Grades 7 to 12) ☐
- University or College ☐

____

12) **What is your father's job? Describe what he does. Does he work for himself or someone else? Give as much information as you can.**

____

____

If he is out of work, what was his previous job? ______________

13) The language my father first learned as a child is ______________
name of language

14) My mother was born in:

CANADA ☐ ______________, ______________
name the province, name the place

MAINLAND PORTUGAL ☐ ______________, ______________
name the province, name the place

AZORES ☐ ______________, ______________
name the island, name the place

MADEIRA ☐ ______________
name the place

OTHER ☐ ______________, ______________
name the country, name the place

15) The place she was born was a
city ☐
town ☐
village ☐

16) She has attended
No school ☐
Primary School (Grades 1 to 6) ☐
Secondary School (Grades 7 to 12) ☐
University or College ☐

R

17) What is your mother's job? Describe what she does. Does she work for herself or someone else? Give as much information as you can.

____ ________

____

If she is out of work, what was her previous job? ____________ ________

18) The language my mother first learned as a child is ____________ ________
name of language

PART D

19) Try to remember all the schools you have attended and list them below. For each school specify where it was located, the number of years you attended it, and the language used for teaching most of the classes.

	1	2	3
School			
City or town			
Country			
Number of years			
Main language of instruction			

(If you have attended more than 3 schools, list the others on the back of this page.)

1.
L ________
T ________
U/R ________

2.
L ________
T ________
U/R ________

3.
L ________
T ________
U/R ________

		Never	Sometimes	About half the time	Often	Always	
20)	Before I went to school I spoke Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5	P ________
21)	Before I went to school I spoke English	1	2	3	4	5	E ________
22)	Before I went to school I spoke French	1	2	3	4	5	F ________
23)	Before I went to school I spoke ________ please specify any other language	1	2	3	4	5	O ________

	Not at all	With some difficulty	Fairly easily	Quite easily	Extremely easily
24) Now I can understand English	1	2	3	4	5
25) Now I can speak English	1	2	3	4	5
26) Now I can read English	1	2	3	4	5
27) Now I can write English	1	2	3	4	5
28) Now I can understand Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
29) Now I can speak Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
30) Now I can read Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
31) Now I can write Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5

32) Besides English and Portuguese, I also know ______________ . ______
language

This language I can

	Not at all	With some difficulty	Fairly easily	Quite easily	Extremely easily	
a) understand	1	2	3	4	5	______
b) speak	1	2	3	4	5	______
c) read	1	2	3	4	5	______
d) write	1	2	3	4	5	______

On the next two pages either circle a number or check a box for each line.

If you speak mainly Portuguese or English to someone, circle a number to show how much for that line.

If you speak mainly some other language to someone, check Another language for that line.

If you never speak to someone - for example, if you do not have a sister - check Not applicable for that line.

33)

When I am talking	Portuguese all the time	Mostly Portuguese	Portuguese & English about equally	Mostly English	English all the time	Another language	Not applicable
a) to my father I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
b) to my mother I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
c) to my brother(s) I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
d) to my sister(s) I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
e) to my grandparents on my my father's side I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
f) to my grandparents on my mother's side I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
g) to my relatives that are living with me I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
h) to my neighbours I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐

34) When I am spoken to	Portuguese all the time	Mostly Portuguese	Portuguese & English about equally	Mostly English	English all the time	Another language	Not Applicable	
a) my father speaks to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐	______
b) my mother speaks to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐	______
c) my brother(s) speak(s) to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐	______
d) my sister(s) speak(s) to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐	______
e) my grandparents on my father's side speak to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐	______
f) my grandparents on my mother's side speak to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐	______
g) my relatives who are living with me speak to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐	______
h) my neighbours speak to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐	______

35) My parents usually speak to each other in ______________________. ______
language(s)

36) My friends and I usually speak to each other in ______________________. ______
language(s)

PART E

37) I watch Portuguese T.V. programs for about ____________ hours a week.
no. of hours

38) I watch English T.V. programs for about ____________ hours a week.
no. of hours

(For each of the following questions check one box only.)

39) In Portuguese, I read (not counting textbooks

- 3 or more books a week ☐
- 1-2 books a week ☐
- 2-3 books a month ☐
- 1 book or less a month ☐
- hardly any books ☐

40) In English, I read (not counting textbooks)

- 3 or more books a week ☐
- 1-2 books a week ☐
- 2-3 books a month ☐
- 1 book or less a month ☐
- hardly any books ☐

41) I listen to Portuguese radio programs:

- every day ☐
- almost every day ☐
- weekends only ☐
- once in a while ☐
- never ☐

42) I listen to English radio programs:

4 hours or more every day ☐
2-3 hours a day ☐
about 1 hour a day ☐
less than 1 hour a day ☐
hardly ever ☐

43) I write letters in Portuguese to my friends and relatives:

about once a week ☐
about once a month ☐
about once a year ☐
hardly ever ☐
never ☐

44) I write letters in English to my friends and relatives:

2-3 times a month ☐
once or less a month ☐
twice a year ☐
once a year ☐
never ☐

45) Do you attend Portuguese classes in any of the Portuguese clubs?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, how many hours a week? ____________________

46) For how many years have you been studying in the Heritage Program? ______________
no. of years

47) For how many years have you studied Portuguese outside the Heritage Program? ______________
no. of years

48) Are you involved in any Portuguese folk dance group?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, a) what is the language used by the dancers?

- Portuguese all the time ☐
- Mostly Portuguese ☐
- Portuguese and English about equally ☐
- Mostly English ☐
- English all the time ☐

b) what is the language used by the instructors?

- Portuguese all the time ☐
- Mostly Portuguese ☐
- Portuguese and English about equally ☐
- Mostly English ☐
- English all the time ☐

In the questions below, either circle a number or check a box as you did for questions 33 and 34.

	Portuguese all the time	Mostly Portuguese	Portuguese & English about equally	Mostly English	English all the time	Another language	Not applicable
49) When I go to church I attend mass in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
50) In other activities of the Portuguese Community (eg. special parties or special festivities) I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
51) People talking to me on these occasions speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
52) When I am at school I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
53) The other students at school speak to me in	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
54) During sports activities I speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐
55) People playing with me speak	1	2	3	4	5	☐	☐

56) In the last 5 years I have been to Portugal ______________ times.
No. of times

Thank you for helping us with this project.

Before you hand in this questionnaire, please go back and make sure that you have answered every question as well as you can.

If you do not know the answer to a question, please write "don't know".

If you are not sure how to say something, please ask for help.

AQ6 ____________________

____

APPENDIX E:2

Name: ____________________

Grade: ____________________

School: ____________________

Date of test: ____________________

Date of birth: ____________________

LANGUAGE ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE
FOR
GRADE 7 STUDENTS

April 1983

INSTRUCTIONS

Please use a pencil and answer the questions as carefully and correctly as possible. If you do not know the answer to a question, write "don't know". If you are not sure how to write something, please ask for help.

Some information questions should be answered by making an X in the appropriate box. Please read these questions carefully before deciding which box to check.

In some other questions you are asked to read certain statements and then circle a number between 1 and 5 which shows as closely as possible how you feel about each statement. Here are two examples:

1) I feel that the following foods taste delicious:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mixed Feelings	Agree	Strongly Agree
Strawberries	1	2	3	4	5
Liver	1	2	3	4	5
Turnips	1	2	3	4	5
Peas	1	2	3	4	5

2) The following things are important for good health:

	Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
Food	1	2	3	4	5
Movies	1	2	3	4	5
Skiing	1	2	3	4	5

Put up your hand if you have any problems:

PART A

I feel that the following languages are important for me:

1) to do well in school.

	Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

2) to have an important position in the Portuguese Community.

English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5

3) to communicate with my family.

English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5

4) to get into a good university.

Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

I feel that the following languages are important for me:

5) to make good friends.

	Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5

6) to get into a good high-school.

Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

7) to communicate with my friends.

English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5

8) to get a good job in the future.

Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

I feel that the following languages are important for me:

9) to be more comfortable with people around me.

	Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5

10) to be a well educated person.

English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

PART B

11) I feel comfortable speaking:

	Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

12) I like:

English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

13) I would like to be taught in:

English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

14) I like to watch television in:

	Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

	Portuguese all the time	Mostly Portuguese	Portuguese and English about equally	Mostly English	English all the time
15) To talk about my feelings I like to use:	1	2	3	4	5
16) To talk with my friends I like to use:	1	2	3	4	5
17) When I talk to my family I like to use:	1	2	3	4	5
18) When my family talks to me I like them to use:	1	2	3	4	5
19) I like to talk about things that happen in school in:	1	2	3	4	5

PART C

20) I consider myself to be mainly: (check one only)

a) a Portuguese speaker ☐

b) an English speaker ☐

c) a speaker of English, French and Portuguese ☐

d) a speaker of English and Portuguese ☐

21) When I grow up I would like to be considered as: (check one only)

a) a speaker of English, French and Portuguese ☐

b) a Portuguese speaker ☐

c) a speaker of English and Portuguese ☐

d) an English speaker ☐

22) When I grow up I would like to marry: (check one only)

a) a speaker of English and Portuguese ☐

b) a speaker of English, French and Portuguese ☐

c) an English speaker ☐

d) a Portuguese speaker ☐

23) If I have children, I would like them to be: (check one only)

a) English speakers ☐

b) speakers of English and Portuguese ☐

c) Portuguese speakers ☐

d) speakers of English, French and Portuguese ☐

PART D

Please give your opinion on the following statements:

24) The Portuguese language should be kept alive in Toronto.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mixed Feelings	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5

25) The Portuguese Community would disappear if all the Portuguese people knew English very well.

	1	2	3	4	5

26) In Toronto people recognize the value of the following languages:

English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

27) In the world people recognize the value of the following languages:

Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

28) English-Canadians think it is very important for a person to study the following languages:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mixed Feelings	Agree	Strongly Agree
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

29) In Toronto people recognize the value of the following groups:

Portuguese-Canadians	1	2	3	4	5
English-Canadians	1	2	3	4	5
French-Canadians	1	2	3	4	5

30) The following groups are very proud of their history, language and culture:

English-Canadians	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese-Canadians	1	2	3	4	5
French-Canadians	1	2	3	4	5

31) People in the Portuguese Community in Toronto have a lot of contact with the following groups:

English-Canadians	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese-Canadians	1	2	3	4	5

PART E

32) In my home people speak very good Portuguese.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mixed Feelings	Agree	Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	______

33) In my home people speak very good English.

1 2 3 4 5 ______

34) The Portuguese spoken in the Azores is as good as the Portuguese spoken in the Mainland.

1 2 3 4 5 ______

35) An Azorean student can have problems understanding a Portuguese teacher from the Mainland.

1 2 3 4 5 ______

36) A student from the Mainland can have problems understanding a Portuguese teacher from the Azores.

1 2 3 4 5 ______

37) When speaking English it is all right to use some Portuguese words.

1 2 3 4 5 ______

38) When speaking Portuguese it is all right to use some English words.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mixed Feelings	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

39) I think that in the Portuguese classes we should be taught in:

	(check one only)
Azorean-Portuguese	☐
Mainland-Portuguese	☐
Both Azorean and Mainland Portuguese	☐
It does not matter	☐

PART F

How well do the following statements reflect your parents' views?

40) My parents would like me to go to university.

Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
1	2	3	4	5

41) My parents feel that a higher education is more important than getting a job when I reach 16.

1	2	3	4	5

42) My parents like to speak with my teachers to find out how I am doing in school.

1	2	3	4	5

43) My parents feel it is important for me to study the following languages:

Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

44) My parents feel that a Portuguese-Canadian should know the following languages very well:

	Not at all	Slightly	Fairly	Very	Extremely
English	1	2	3	4	5
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

45) When I have homework in the following languages my parents make sure I do it.

	Never	Sometimes	About half the time	Often	Always
Portuguese	1	2	3	4	5
English	1	2	3	4	5
French	1	2	3	4	5

PART G

46) I give my opinion on subjects when I am speaking with

	Never	Sometimes	About half the time	Often	Always
a) adults outside my family	1	2	3	4	5
b) my parents	1	2	3	4	5
c) my brother(s) and sister(s)	1	2	3	4	5
d) my teachers	1	2	3	4	5
e) my friends	1	2	3	4	5

47) In the future I am planning: (check one only)

a) to stay in Canada ☐

b) to go back to Portugal permanently ☐

48) My family is planning: (check one only)

a) to stay in Canada ☐

b) to go back to Portugal permanently ☐

49) If I could, I would prefer to spend my holidays in:
(check one only)

a) Canada ☐

b) Portugal ☐

c) Other countries ☐

d) all of the above ☐

50) I know Portuguese history and achievements.

Not at all	Slightly	Fairly Well	Very Well	Extremely well
1	2	3	4	5

51) I know Canadian history and achievements.

1	2	3	4	5

52) I feel proud of Portuguese history and achievements.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mixed Feelings	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

53) I feel proud of Canadian history and achievements.

1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E:3

April 1983

GMB ______________________

____

Name: ______________________

School: ______________________

Class: ______________________

Date of test: ______________________

Birthdate: ______________________

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO

PART I

The exercises in Part I of this test are like the example shown below. Many of the exercises contain mistakes in the use of words. Some do not have any mistakes at all.

You are to look for mistakes in the test exercises. When you find a mistake, circle the letter that belongs to the line where you found the mistake. If there is no mistake in an exercise, circle the letter d).

EXAMPLE:

a) She looked out of the window.

[✓ b)] Me and him are good friends.

c) Can I help you?

d) (No mistakes)

NOTE: CIRCLE ONE ANSWER ONLY FOR EACH EXERCISE.

Do not turn the page until you are told to.

1. a) What is it that your friend would have liked us to do?

   b) If you going to the show when will you be home?

   c) Whom did your boss say he had telephoned?

   d) (No mistakes)

2. a) He was sick yesterday but now his fine.

   b) It was a difficult decision that had to be made.

   c) The teeth of the mountain goat become worn down with age.

   d) (No mistakes)

3. a) Mrs. Warren forgot to tell him or me when she was leaving.

   b) The basement flooded during the storm. but the damage could have been worse.

   c) The boy hardly made any noise as he crept along on all fours.

   d) (No mistakes)

4. a) Listening contentedly to the birds, Derek lay down on the grass to rest.

   b) I didn't write the letter though I wasn't too busy at the time.

   c) The police investigators in that country was generally very careful.

   d) (No mistakes)

5. a) My cousin, Tom, is eighteen years old enough to work.

   b) We had run out of bread long before we had finished the meal.

   c) A large carton of soft drinks was left on the shelf.

   d) (No mistakes)

6. a) It would have been a harder test had it been in French.

   b) He had forgotten his gloves,and it wasn't long before his hands were froze in the cold wind.

   c) Carol goes shopping every Saturday with my mother and me at the Eaton Centre.

   d) (No mistakes)

7. a) Julia asked me if I have been swimming very often last summer.

   b) A horse and a cow were sheltering from the rain under the chestnut tree.

   c) None of us was aware that the last bus had already left.

   d) (No mistakes)

8. a) Peter likes his coffee with cream in it, but Jennie takes hers black.

   b) Maria stole quietly out of the room while her sister was still asleep.

   c) After ten years on the job, she is experience in selling real estate.

   d) (No mistakes)

9. a) When my grandmother say she would like to go out, we accompany her on a walk to the park.

   b) The wind was blowing the kite higher and higher above the trees.

   c) I can assure you that we eat much less candy than our friends next door.

   d) (No mistakes)

10. a) Before coming to Canada, I was under the impression that it snowed here all year round.

    b) Finally the children had had about as much as they could eat.

    c) If you stay more closer to the house you will hear the telephone when it rings.

    d) (No mistakes)

11. a) There is no fruit that tastes sweeter to me than a strawberry that I have grown myself.

    b) When you are use to living in a big city, the country seems very quiet.

    c) Which of you boys is fast enough to win the race?

    d) (No mistakes)

12. a) Accounting for all the money you have spent will be difficult.

    b) At our local variety store, some thieves stoled all the cash from the till.

    c) Oats and wheat grow equally well in this field.

    d) (No mistakes)

13. a) Have you ever been at a puppet show in which one man plays all the characters?

    b) Having sold all his newspapers, Mark went with his friends to a movie.

    c) Karen realized suddenly that she had never seen the ocean before.

    d) (No mistakes)

14. a) It was not until August that Mr. Wells left Montreal for a trip to the West.

    b) Had he finished his dinner before the guests arrived?

    c) Each night we told stories besides the camp fire.

    d) (No mistakes)

15. a) Every one of the crayons was broken in half.

    b) The berries we picked last year were much bigger and juicier.

    c) I don't think I have ever seen as many Canada geese before.

    d) (No mistakes)

PART II

In each of the following sentences, you are to find what is wrong, if anything. If there is a mistake, decide which underlined part must be changed to make the sentence correct.

If there is no mistake, the answer is D.

In the right hand margin, circle the letter that corresponds to the answer you have chosen.

EXAMPLE:

Answer

The boys done their homework and then
A B
went out to play hockey. No mistake.
C D

[✓ A] B C D

NOW TURN THE PAGE AND BEGIN.

Answer

16. Now that you have seen it, do you think
A B

the T.V. program was A B C D

worth watching it? No mistake
C D

17. Stephen felt his way careful across the
A

ice, fearing that it might give way A B C D
B C

at any moment. No mistake
D

18. By following Mr. Reid's instructions,
A

we eventually arrived at the house A B C D
B

where he was staying at. No mistake
C D

19. Like others in the building, the Browns
A

soon found it necessary to move, because A B C D
B

their apartment costed too much. No mistake
C D

Answer

20. The king was responsible on the
A
A B C D

welfare of his many subjects. No mistake
B C D

21. Despite poor weather, attendance at the
A B

annual Labour Day parade was A B C D

the highest ever recorded. No mistake
C D

22. The children had eaten so much sandwiches
A B

that they had little appetite for A B C D
C

the birthday cake. No mistake
D

23. The success of the venture depended for
A B

the climbers' ability to reach the summit A B C D

in under two hours. No mistake
C D

Answer

24. As a result of the rain, we will have to
A B

postpone the baseball game that was A B C D

to have taken place this afternoon. No mistake
C D

25. A lioness, accompanied with her cubs,
A

is an extremely dangerous animal to A B C D
B

contend with. No mistake
C D

PART III

Read each group of words. Some groups are complete sentences; others are not. Punctuation and capital letters have been left out on purpose.

If the group of words is a complete sentence, even though you might be able to add something else to it, circle letter a) for "Complete sentence."

If the group of words is not a complete sentence, decide which group of words can be added before or after the original group to make a complete sentence. Then circle the letter that belongs to the answer you have chosen.

EXAMPLE:

were playing in the street

a) Complete sentence

[✓ b)] the children

c) very happily

NOW TURN THE PAGE AND BEGIN.

26. the tree which had fallen on the road

a) Complete sentence

b) in the storm

c) the men were sawing

27. on the wall was a portrait of the queen

a) Complete sentence

b) that I had seen before

c) she looked

28. as soon as she heard the doorbell ring

a) Complete sentence

b) while she was coming downstairs

c) she ran to open the door

29. moving quickly now that the highway is clear

a) Complete sentence

b) the traffic is

c) late at night

30. after he cleaned the car he noticed a dent in the fender

   a) Complete sentence

   b) then he saw

   c) that was not there before

31. when my brother came home after working in the north

   a) Complete sentence

   b) we had a party

   c) for three years

32. the house that is being built on the corner of our street

   a) Complete sentence

   b) near the supermarket

   c) has been sold

33. since she enjoyed going to the movies whenever she had time

   a) Complete sentence

   b) she saved her pocket-money each week

   c) for an evening out

34. quickly the mouse ran under the cupboard

a) Complete sentence

b) and escaped from the cat

c) where it hid until nightfall

35. with a crash the flower pot broke into pieces

a) Complete sentence

b) on the floor

c) spilling earth all over the carpet

APPENDIX E:4

DMB____________________

____

Name:____________________

School:____________________

Class:____________________

Date of test:____________________

Birthdate:____________________

DISCOURSE MULTIPLE CHOICE
ENGLISH

April 1983

DO NOT TURN PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS

In the following pages you will find a series of short paragraphs. From each paragraph, one sentence has been removed. Your task is to select the right sentence from the three choices given (a, b or c). The right sentence is the one that best fits in with the rest of the paragraph.

Write the letter corresponding to the sentence you choose in the space where that sentence should go in the text.

EXAMPLE:

a) Sarah won a contest.
b) Jim won a contest.
c) The girls won a contest.

a. She decided to spend the money on a trip to Europe.

Do not spend too much time on any one question. If a question seems to be too difficult, make the most careful guess you can.

DO NOT TURN PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO.

X

INSTRUÇÕES EM PORTUGUÊS

Nas páginas seguintes irás encontrar uma série de pequenos parágrafos. Em cada parágrafo há uma frase que falta. Tu deverás selecionar de entre as possíveis escolhas que te dão (a, b ou c), qual a frase que melhor se adequa ao resto do parágrafo.

Escreve a letra que corresponde à frase que tu escolheste no espaço em branco que indica o lugar onde a frase deveria estar.

EXEMPLO:

a) Sarah won a contest.
b) Jim won a contest.
c) The girls won a contest.

a. She decided to spend the money on a trip to Europe.

Não percas muito tempo com uma pergunta. Se a pergunta te parecer muito difícil escolhe uma resposta que te pareça certa.

NÃO MUDES A PÁGINA ATÉ QUE TE DIGAM PARA O FAZERES

1. a) **Some products kept around the house are not very useful.**
   b) **Some products kept around the house are not dangerous.**
   c) **Some products kept around the house are dangerous.**

_____________________________. Floor cleaner can catch fire, and iodine is a poison.

2. Louise is waiting for Gloria on the corner of the street. They were supposed to go to a concert at 7:00 o'clock.

   a) **After the concert they would like to go to a restaurant.**
   b) **It is 7:15 and Gloria hasn't arrived yet.**
   c) **Gloria thinks that the concert is at 8:00 o'clock.**

_____________________________. Louise is very angry.

3. "Whose book is this?" the teacher asked crossly, holding up a copy of our geography text. "You know you're supposed to have your names on the cover." Knowing that I hadn't written my name on mine, I opened my desk to check.

   a) **"I guess this book is mine," I said in a low voice, turning red.**
   b) **"I guess it's mine," I said in a low voice, turning red.**
   c) **"I guess this is mine," I said in a low voice, turning red.**

_____________________________. "My copy isn't here."

4. In a contest, Pat won a week's trip to San Francisco. The prize included a night in a good hotel and $400 in pocketmoney.

   a) **When she arrived in San Francisco, she was so tired that she slept all day in the hotel.**

   b) **There, she walked through all the parks in the city.**

   c) **There, she spent all her money running around to theatres and good restaurants.**

______________________________. On her return, she was tired and broke, but happy.

How would you like to go to a school like this one in Oxford, England? The students have a lot of freedom. There are no regularly scheduled classes. The students move from one group to another when they want to.

   a) **You have to be fifteen years old to go to this school.**

   b) **They work at their own speed.**

   c) **In Canada, this kind of school is rare.**

______________________________. No one tells them what they should or shouldn't be doing.

6. a) **Hallowe'en is not a religious feast.**

   b) **Hallowe'en started as a North American holiday for children.**

   c) **Hallowe'en has a long history.**

______________________________. It goes back to the Romans. At this time of year, they held a big feast in honour of the goddess of the fruit trees.

7. Mark got up early that morning. This was going to be a special day for him. He made his bed and dressed quickly.

   a) **Quietly he went to the kitchen and got his breakfast.**
   b) **He jumped out of bed, anxious to get started.**
   c) **Whistling happily, he leapt on his bike and sped off.**

______________________________. Then he got his things ready. At last he was ready to start on his fishing trip.

8. There were flowers on earth long before human life appeared.

______________________________.

   a) **With their brilliant colours and enticing perfumes they evolved to attract the insects that would serve to pollinate the plants.**
   b) **When they first arrived in North America, the early settlers introduced many new species of plants that they had cultivated in their homelands.**
   c) **With their exquisite shapes and colours and their delicate perfumes, they were grown to provide pleasure to countless generations of gardeners.**

9. The blues is a type of music created by black Americans.

   a) **They also play jazz.**
   b) **Jazz is especially known as dance music.**
   c) **It is one of the sources of jazz.**

______________________________. It has characteristic harmonies and is in 4/4 time.

10. My mother doesn't like me to go out after school without telling her. Yesterday I went to my friend Paul's house.

    a) **I didn't think I'd be there long.**
    b) **A few minutes later I called her.**
    c) **He said I could call my mother from his place.**

______________________________. When I got home for dinner, my mother was angry with me.

11. a) **Tuesday evening, Anna came home late.**
    b) **Tuesday evening, Frank came home late.**
    c) **Tuesday evening, his mother came home late.**

______________________________. After hanging his coat, he went straight to the kitchen. He was hungry, for dinner-time was long past.

12. Dave and Gerald were having a discussion. They were debating the efficiency and cost of getting a computer for the office.

    a) **Dave argued that computers were inefficient.**
    b) **Gerald argued that the cost of the computer would not justify the small increase in efficiency.**
    c) **Dave argued that the efficiency of the computer would justify the cost.**

______________________________. He thought it was a good idea to get one.

13. a) **People stay home on Friday the thirteenth.**
    b) **Friday the thirteenth is an unlucky day.**
    c) **Hallowe'en is the feast of all saints.**

______________________________. This is a very common superstition. Some people are very superstitious. Others just laugh at such beliefs.

14. A diamond cutter cuts a diamond so that it reflects light. In its natural state, a diamond is not attractive.

    a) **Its sparkle and shine attract the eye.**
    b) **Good diamond cutters are not rare.**
    c) **Its beauty is brought out only after long and careful work.**

______________________________. This is why a good diamond cutter is highly respected.

15. Karen and her friends were discussing their test results. "How well did you do?" one of her friends asked Karen.

______________________________.

    a) **"I passed," answered Karen.**
    b) **"I did so," answered Karen.**
    c) **"I did," answered Karen.**

16. Since it was warm and sunny, Jim and Lucy decided to organize a baseball game.

    a) **They got together all the equipment needed for the game.**
    b) **They got up early one day.**
    c) **When the time came for the game, only five people showed up.**

_______________________________. Then, when they were ready, they called enough friends to make two teams.

17. Two friends decided to build a tree house. They got all the necessary tools and, thinking that it would be easy, set aside the afternoon to do it. But by the end of the day, they hadn't even finished the floor.

_______________________________.

    a) **It isn't so easy after all.**
    b) **It wasn't so easy after all.**
    c) **It was as easy as they had expected.**

18. Julie eats her vegetables with a lot of salt but no pepper.

_______________________________.

    a) **Matthew likes his with a lot of salt but no pepper.**
    b) **Matthew likes it with pepper but no salt.**
    c) **Matthew likes his with pepper but no salt.**

19. a) **Every year, inventors come from all over North America to take part in the Inventors' Fair in New York.**

    b) **Every year, inventors from all over North America meet in New York.**

    c) **Every year, at the Inventors' Fair in New York, new inventions from all over North America are shown.**

____________________________. At this show, they show their latest inventions in the hope of selling them and making a fortune. However, they seldom earn much more than it costs to attend the fair.

20. William and Anna are fantastic athletes. They practise every day.

    a) **Anna is especially good at the broad jump and the 100 metre dash.**

    b) **Anna does the broad jump and William does the high jump.**

    c) **William is especially good at high jumping and running.**

____________________________. They will represent their school at the inter-school meet this spring.

21. Last week I wore my new suit to my friend's party. But all my friends were in jeans and T-shirts.

    a) **I felt silly.**

    b) **They didn't criticize my new outfit.**

    c) **The suit was dark-blue corduroy.**

____________________________. Next time I'll wear my jeans like everyone else.

22. a) **Mail-order houses sometimes charge a fee for delivery.**
    b) **Buying from a catalogue is so easy.**
    c) **Buying by mail-order is very popular.**

______________________________. One reason may be that people believe that things bought by mail are cheaper. Another advantage is that it is more comfortable to sit at home and look through a catalogue than to rush around the stores.

23. The sun is shining. It's a beautiful day for a parade.

______________________________.

a) **And it comes here!**
b) **And here it comes!**
c) **And it goes there!**

24. Tired and hot, John climbed to the top of the stairs and set the bags of groceries on the last step.

a) **John opened the door, bent down, and he picked the bags up again.**
b) **He opened the door, bent down, and John picked the bags up again.**
c) **He opened the door, bent down, and picked the bags up again.**

______________________________. Then, with a last effort, he carried them to the kitchen counter.

25. About one-third of the world's population is left-handed, so you might think that being left-handed would be accepted by everyone.

______________________________.

a) **However, many parents no longer force their children to use their right hand.**

b) **However, children automatically prefer to use their right hand.**

c) **However, many parents still force their children to use their right hand.**

26. When she got into the house, she was exhausted and longing to go to sleep, but first she had to put away her things. She hung her coat in the hall closet.

a) **Then she put her books on the table by her bed.**

b) **Then she took off her boots and set them in the boot tray.**

c) **Then she pushed her bicycle into the garage.**

______________________________. Finally, she went to her bedroom.

27. The first balloon trip took place in France in 1783.

a) **It had been well planned.**

b) **It lasted only eight minutes.**

c) **It was filled with hot air.**

______________________________. Nevertheless, it was a great event for the French.

28. Peter and I had talked for half an hour about what to do. He wanted to go for a bike ride, but I preferred to play ball. Finally we reached an agreement.

______________________________.

a) **Since there was lots of time, we would do it.**

b) **Since there was lots of time, Peter and I would do it.**

c) **Since there was lots of time, we would do both.**

29. Whales are mammals who spend their lives in the cold sea.

a) **A layer of insulating blubber under their skin keeps them warm in the water.**

b) **A layer of insulating fat under the skin prevents them from becoming too warm in the water.**

c) **A thick layer of insulating fat called blubber helps to keep them cool.**

______________________________. The fact that they are so large also helps them to stay warm.

30. Next week, the class is going skating on the Rideau Canal in Ottawa, but Judy doesn't have any skates.

a) **Susan doesn't either.**

b) **Susan does.**

c) **Susan has her own.**

______________________________. So, they'll both have to rent some.

31. Some friends are planning a trip to Italy; they want to avoid going when the weather is unpleasant.

a) **They remember that in winter it is cool and fresh.**
b) **They remember that in summer it is sunny but too dry.**
c) **They remember that in spring it is sunny and warm.**

______________________________. So, they agree that this is a bad time to go.

32. I've never eaten Chinese food, but I've had a lot of French dishes, which taste delicious. The sauces are rich and smooth, and the desserts are light and very sweet.

______________________________.

a) **Chinese food is rarely over-cooked or greasy.**
b) **They have herbs and spices in just the right amounts.**
c) **They never have enough sugar.**

APPENDIX E:5

April 1983

SCB ______________________

____

Name: ______________________

School: ______________________

Grade: ______________________

Date of test: ______________________

Birth date: ______________________

SOCIOLINGUISTIC WRITING TEST

ENGLISH

PLEASE DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO

There are three parts to this test.

In Part I, you are to write a letter. You will have 10 minutes to write the letter.

In Part II, you are to write a short note. You will have 5 minutes to write the note.

In Part III, you will have six short paragraphs to read and some changes to make in each paragraph. You will have 15 minutes for this part of the test.

PLEASE DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO

LETTER OF REQUEST

Imagine that you are doing a project on pollution. In just two weeks' time it is your turn to talk about your finished project to the class. You have looked in the library but did not find what you wanted. Write an urgent letter to Environment Canada asking for information and pictures to reach you in time for your class presentation.

You have 10 minutes to complete your letter.

PLEASE DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO

NOTE FROM TEACHER

Twice this week you have forgotten to do your home-work and your teacher is not pleased with you. He has told you to come to school early to catch up on your work. When you arrive in the classroom your teacher is not there, but he has left a note for you on the blackboard telling you to read a passage in your reader and do an exercise in your workbook. Write the note the way you think your teacher would have written it (you can imagine any exercise you like).

You have 5 minutes to write your teacher's note.

PLEASE DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO

PART III

In this section, there are some short paragraphs. In each paragraph some words have been underlined.

Read the paragraph. Then change the part that has been underlined so that it fits better with the rest of the paragraph.

Do not change the main idea, just the way it is written. It should only take a few words.

HERE IS AN EXAMPLE:

Read this paragraph:

> Lots of things people think about wolves aren't true. Like, they kill a lot of other animals - but hunters may kill a lot more. Also, it is commonly believed that the wolf inhabits regions far from urban centres. But sometimes you see wolves pretty close to them.

Now make your change in the space provided:

> Lots of things people think about wolves aren't true. Like, they kill a lot of other animals - but hunters may kill a lot more.
>
> Also, people often believe that wolves live a long way from towns.
>
> But sometimes you see wolves pretty close to them.

NOW TURN THE PAGE AND BEGIN.

Paragraph 1.

Read this paragraph:

Chris -

The librarian says the book you wanted has come in. You can drop in and pick it up at your convenience.

Mom

Now make your change in the space provided:

Chris -

The librarian says the book you wanted has come in. You can

drop in and pick it up ______________________________

____________________.

Mom

Paragraph 2

Read this paragraph:

Dear Mr. Ferrero,

At the meeting of March 7, the Hiring Committee decided to offer you a promotion within the organization. The post of Payroll Supervisor will be available in April; in view of your training and experience, the committee wishes to offer you this position. Do you want to tell us by March 19 if you'll take the job?

Respectfully,

T. Collins,
Personnel Officer

Now make your change in the space provided:

Dear Mr. Ferrero,

At the meeting of March 7, the Hiring Committee decided to offer you a promotion within the organization. The post of Payroll Supervisor will be available in April; in view of your training and experience, the committee wishes to offer you this

position. ____

____

______________.

Respectfully,

T. Collins,
Personnel Officer

Paragraph 3

Read this paragraph:

> Police statistics were published recently, reporting on the incidence of crime in various parts of the city. Area 45 showed a sharp increase in vandalism. There's been a lot more robberies right around here lately. In the city as a whole, the rate of violent crime has declined slightly.

Now make your change in the space provided:

> Police statistics were published recently, reporting on the incidence of crime in various parts of the city. Area 45
>
> showed a sharp increase in vandalism. ____________________
>
> ____
>
> _________________________________. In the city as a whole,
>
> the rate of violent crime has declined slightly.

Paragraph 4

Read this paragraph:

Jack -

I won't be back from lunch today until 2. I told the boss I was going to the doctor's. If she asks, would you be so kind as to support this explanation of my absence? Thanks!

Jan

Now make your change in the space provided:

Jack -

I won't be back from lunch today until 2. I told the boss I was going to the doctor's. If she asks,

____

____

Thanks!

Jan

Paragraph 5

Read this paragraph:

Dear Ms Smith,

Please excuse Carl's absence from class. He was feeling ill, and the doctor recommended that he remain at home and just lie around.

Sincerely,

F. Wyman

Now make your change in the space provided:

Dear Ms Smith,

Please excuse Carl's absence from class. He was feeling ill, and the doctor recommended that he remain at home and

____.

Sincerely,

F. Wyman

Paragraph 6

Read this paragraph:

Hey readers! This week's tips are about bike thefts. If you want to hang on to your bike, don't take chances. To leave one's bicycle unlocked is an unnecessary risk. Running off and leaving it on the sidewalk isn't too bright. Get yourself a good lock and use it right!

Now make your change in the space provided:

Hey readers! This week's tips are about bike thefts. If you want to hang on to your bike, don't take chances.

____

____

Running off and leaving it on the sidewalk isn't too bright. Get yourself a good lock and use it right!

GM2____________________

APPENDIX E:6

Name:____________________

School:____________________

Class:____________________

Date of test:____________________

Birthdate:____________________

GRAMMAR TEST

PORTUGUESE

DO NOT TURN PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO

INSTRUÇÕES EM PORTUGUÊS

Neste teste ser-te-ão dados grupos de três frases mas só uma frase em cada um desses grupos é gramaticalmente correcta.

Faz um círculo em volta da letra que indica a frase correcta.

EXEMPLO:

A Ela estou aqui.
[✓ B] Ela está aqui.
C Ela estão aqui.

Não percas muito tempo com cada um dos grupos. Se a pergunta te parecer muito difícil escolhe uma resposta que te pareça certa.

NÃO MUDES DE PÁGINA ATÉ QUE TE DIGAM PARA O FAZERES.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS

This is a multiple choice grammar test. In this test you are given groups of three sentences but only one is grammatically correct. Please circle the letter corresponding to the right answer.

EXAMPLE:

A Ela estou aqui.
[✓ B] Ela está aqui.
C Ela estão aqui.

Do not spend too much time on one group. If a question seems to be too difficult, make the most careful guess you can.

DO NOT TURN PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO.

1. **A** Fica aqui este livro com eles o lerem.
   B Fica aqui este livro sem eles o lerem.
   C Fica aqui este livro para eles o lerem.

2. **A** Perante dessa casa há um jardim.
   B Em volta dessa casa há um jardim.
   C Na volta dessa casa há um jardim.

3. **A** Ela não te disse para lá ires.
   B Ela não disse-te para lá ires.
   C Ela não disse-te lá para ires.

4. **A** Os alunos nem sempre gostam de estar sentadas.
   B Os alunos nem sempre gostam de estar sentado.
   C Os alunos nem sempre gostam de estar sentados.

5. **A** Nós andamos na escola.
   B Nós andam na escola.
   C Nós andarmos na escola.

6. **A** Eu queria que ele viesse comigo mas ele não quis.
   B Eu queria que ele viesse comigo mas ele não queira.
   C Eu queria que ele viesse comigo mas ele não quisesse.

7. **A** Eles não aperceberam-se que alguém tinha roubado o bolo.
B Eles não são apercebidos que alguém tinha roubado o bolo.
C Eles não se aperceberam que alguém tinha roubado o bolo.

8. **A** A Alda quando vai às compras muito gasta dinheiro.
B A Alda quando vai às compras gasta muito dinheiro.
C A Alda quando vai às compras gasta dinheiro muito.

9. **A** Havia um pátio entre a casa e o jardim.
B Havia um pátio pela casa e o jardim.
C Havia um pátio através da casa e o jardim.

10. **A** Vocês viram o mercado?
B Vocês serem vistos o mercado?
C Vocês verem o mercado?

11. **A** Da tia dela os filhos são muito altos.
B Os da tia dela filhos são muito altos.
C Os filhos da tia dela são muito altos.

12. **A** Ela estava na loja quando nós olhámos para a montra.
B Ela estava na loja quando nós olhamos para a montra.
C Ela estava na loja quando nós olharmos para a montra.

13. **A** Ele telefonou para Maria e para o João.
B Ele telefonou para a Maria e para o João.
C Ele telefonou para a Maria e para João.

14. **A** Vocês vêem escola e o jardim.
B Vocês vêem a escola e jardim.
C Vocês vêem a escola e o jardim.

15. **A** Quem lhe disse que os legumes não eram bons?
B Quem lhe disse que os legumes bons não eram?
C Quem disse-lhe que os legumes não eram bons?

16. **A** Tu podes comprar os discos no Canadá ou em Portugal.
B Tu podes comprar os discos no Canadá ou no Portugal.
C Tu podes comprar os discos em Canadá ou no Portugal.

17. **A** Vai buscar encarnados os papéis e verdes as canetas.
B Vai buscar os encarnados papéis e as verdes canetas.
C Vai buscar os papéis encarnados e as canetas verdes.

18. **A** Vou a este Café e não àquele.
B Vou a este Café e não por aquele.
C Vou por este Café e não àquele.

19. A Os que lhe deu João livros são muito caros.
B Os que o João livros lhe deu são muito caros.
C Os livros que o João lhe deu são muito caros.

20. A O gato estava em baixo da mesa.
B O gato estava ao cimo da mesa.
C O gato estava de baixo da mesa.

21. A Os casacos estavam dentro no armário.
B Os casacos estavam dentro para o armário.
C Os casacos estavam dentro do armário.

22. A O primo da Ana são doze anos.
B O primo da Ana tem doze anos.
C O primo da Ana têm doze anos.

23. A Se ele tiverem pasado pela casa dela eu tê-lo-ia visto.
B Se ele tivessem passado pela casa dela eu tê-lo-ia visto.
C Se ele tivesse passado pela casa dela eu tê-lo-ia visto.

24. A A Alice sentou-se ao lado da Ana.
B A Alice sentou-se lado da Ana.
C A Alice sentou-se ao lado Ana.

25. A A professora deu os livros por alunos.
B A professora deu os livros aos alunos.
C A professora deu os livros nos alunos.

26. A A irmã delas chega sempre atrasada.
B A irmã delas chegam sempre atrasada.
C A irmã delas chegaram sempre atrasada.

27. A Ela sentia-se mal disposta e não quis vê-lo.
B Ela sentia-se mal disposta e não quis o vê.
C Ela sentia-se mal disposta e não quis vê-o.

28. A Os que ficaram sentados ao pé da parede não vêm bem o filme.
B Os que ficaram sentados ao pé da parede não vêem bem o filme.
C Os que ficaram sentados ao pé da parede não vem bem o filme.

29. A Ele visitou França, a Espanha e o Portugal.
B Ele visitou a França, a Espanha e Portugal.
C Ele visitou a França, a Espanha e o Portugal.

30. A Se eu sabem não tinha lá ido.
B Se eu saberia não tinha lá ido.
C Se eu soubesse não tinha lá ido.

31. A Ontem, o irmão do Antônio partiu os óculos.
B Ontem, o irmão do Antônio partiram os óculos.
C Ontem, o irmão do Antônio partem os óculos.

32. A Os livros estão sobre a gaveta.
B Os livros estão para a gaveta.
C Os livros estão dentro da gaveta.

33. A O carro da Paula está quase sempre avariado.
B O carro da Paula sempre está quase avariado.
C O carro da Paula está quase avariado sempre.

34. A A Alda não pensava que eles viessem tão cedo.
B A Alda não pensava que eles venham tão cedo.
C A Alda não pensava que eles vieram tão cedo.

35. A Ele quer que eu lesse o livro.
B Ele quer que eu leio o livro.
C Ele quer que eu leia o livro.

36. A Nós costumávamos lá estar sobre a festa.
B Nós costumávamos lá estar antes da festa.
C Nós costumávamos lá estar com a festa.

37. **A** Os livros que ela me deu foi muito interessantes.
B Os livros que ela me deu era muito interessantes.
C Os livros que ela me deu eram muito interessantes.

38. **A** A Amélia e o João são muito mais velho que ela.
B A Amélia e o João são muito mais velha que ela.
C A Amélia e o João são muito mais velhos que ela.

39. **A** Entre o rio e a cidade havia um parque.
B Durante o rio e a cidade havia um parque.
C Por o rio e a cidade havia um parque.

40. **A** Quem é que não gosta de gelados?
B Quem é que não gostam de gelados?
C Quem é que não gostavam de gelados?

41. **A** A Ana e a Maria têm casacos brancas e verdes.
B A Ana e a Maria têm casacos brancos e verdes.
C A Ana e a Maria têm casacos brancos e verde.

42. **A** Nós andavam a aprender Português.
B Nós andem a aprender Português.
C Nós andamos a aprender Português.

43. A A Sara e a Noémia quando eram pequena ficavam em casa.
B A Sara e a Noémia quando eram pequeno ficavam em casa.
C A Sara e a Noémia quando eram pequenas ficavam em casa.

44. A A família dele veio há pouco tempo de São Miguel.
B A família com ele veio há pouco tempo de São Miguel.
C A família nele veio há pouco tempo de São Miguel.

45. A Se eu trouxesse bolos eles nos comiam.
B Se eu trouxesse bolos eles comiam-nos.
C Se eu trouxesse bolos eles comem-nos.

46. A Os irmãos do Alexandre são grandes amigos meus.
B Os irmão são do Alexandre grandes amigos meus.
C Os irmãos são grandes amigos meus do Alexandre.

47. A O Sol é astro mas Terra é planeta.
B O Sol é astro mas a Terra é um planeta.
C O Sol é um astro mas a Terra é um planeta.

48. A Assim que eles chegam vão logo na casa ver televisão.
B Assim que eles chegam a casa vão logo ver televisão.
C Assim que eles chegam logo a casa vão ver televisão.

49. **A** Eles foram passar férias para Flórida.

B Eles foram passar férias em Flórida.

C Eles foram passar férias à Flórida.

50. **A** Nessa província haviam muitas árvores.

B Nessa província havia muitas árvores.

C Nessa província haverão muitas árvores.

DM2 ____________________

APPENDIX E:7

Name: ____________________

School: ____________________

Class: ____________________

Date of test: ____________________

Birthdate: ____________________

DISCOURSE MULTIPLE CHOICE

PORTUGUESE

DO NOT TURN PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO

INSTRUÇÕES EM PORTUGUÊS

Nas páginas seguintes irás encontrar uma série de pequenos parágrafos. Em cada parágrafo há uma frase que falta. Tu deverás selecionar de entre as possíveis escolhas que te dão (a, b ou c), qual a frase que melhor se adequa ao resto do parágrafo.

Escreve a letra que corresponde à frase que tu escolheste no espaço em branco que indica o lugar onde a frase deveria estar.

EXEMPLO:

a) A Maria gosta de ver televisão,
b) O João gosta de ver televisão,
c) As meninas gostam de ver televisão,

____________ a ____________ mas, como a televisão está avariada, ela hoje não pode ver o programa.

Não percas muito tempo com uma pergunta. Se a pergunta te parecer muito difícil escolhe uma resposta que te pareça certa.

NÃO MUDES A PÁGINA ATÉ QUE TE DIGAM PARA O FAZERES

X

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS

In the following pages you will find a series of short paragraphs. From each paragraph, one sentence has been removed. Your task is to select the right sentence from the three choices given (a, b or c). The right sentence is the one that best fits in with the rest of the paragraph.

Write the letter corresponding to the sentence you choose in the space where that sentence should go in the text.

EXAMPLE:

a) A Maria gosta de ver televisão,
b) O João gosta de ver televisão,
c) As meninas gostam de ver televisão,

____________ a ____________ mas, como a televisão está avariada, ela hoje não pode ver o programa.

Do not spend toomuch time on any one question. If a question seems to be too difficult, make the most careful guess you can.

DO NOT TURN PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO.

1. **A Maria gosta muito de fazer bolos. Um dia a Clara perguntou-lhe:**
— Tu costumas fazer bolos todos os fins de semana? —
A Clara respondeu-lhe:____

a) **— Nem sempre. Às vezes não tenho paciência.—**

b) **— Nem sempre. Às vezes faço-os com chocolate.—**

c) **— Nem sempre. Às vezes ponho frutas e nozes na massa.—**

2. O Alfredo e o pai estavam na cozinha a preparar o jantar.
— O que é que aconteceu ao bocado de bolo que estava no frigorífico?—
perguntou o pai do Alfredo.

a) — Eu fui. —

b) — Eu comi isto. —

c) — Eu comi-o. —

____ Disse o Alfredo.

3. O João e a Marta são excelentes músicos. Eles aprenderam música quando eram ainda muito novos.

a) O João toca piano e a Marta toca guitarra.

b) O João toca piano e flauta.

c) A Maria toca guitarra e piano.

____ Eles tocam presentemente num conjunto e estão a pensar irem à América no mês que vem.

4. Lisboa tem sido, desde longa data, uma cidade famosa através do mundo.

____

a) Foi uma cidade na qual Vasco da Gama embarcava para a sua viagem à Índia.

b) Foi nesta cidade que Vasco da Gama embarcou para a sua viagem à Índia.

c) Foi essa cidade na qual Vasco da Gama embarcou para a sua viagem à Índia.

5. O Carlos levou a Luísa de carro para a escola esta manhã. Como estava um pouco ensonado só notou o sinal vermelho quando estava a travessar um cruzamento.

a) — Bem, já que estou aqui o melhor é esperar aqui mesmo.— Disse ele.

b) — Bem, o melhor é voltar para trás.— Disse ele.

c) — Bem, já agora o melhor é atravessar.— Disse ele.

____ — Mas é perigosíssimo atravessar com o sinal vermelho! — Disse a Luísa.

6. No Domingo passado fui a um casamento e não levei chapéu. No entanto, todas as outras senhoras tinham um.

a) O chapéu que eu achei mais bonito era cinzento e tinha uma fita azul escura.

b) Ninguém me disse nada pelo facto de eu não levar chapéu.

c) Não me senti nada à vontade.

____ Para a próxima vez que eu vá a um casamento hei-de usar também um chapéu como as outras senhoras.

7. — Já alguma vez foste a casa da Paula? — Perguntou-lhe a Maria.

____

a) — A casa da Paula. —

b) — Já. —

c) — Sim, a casa.—

Disse a Amélia encolhendo os ombros.

8. O mosto usado para o fabrico de vinho do Porto vem de Portugal.

a) As uvas apropriadas para o seu fabrico são cultivadas no Vale do Douro.

b) Inicialmente, o mosto era totalmente fermentado e tinha um gosto desagradável.

c) Tem que envelhecer pelo menos dois anos.

_______________________________________ Foi só no século XVIII que alguém descobriu que se se lhe juntasse aguardente a fermentação pararia e o vinho ficaria deste modo mais doce.

9. Eu nunca viagei na Europa mas já fui às Caraíbas. O tempo nas Caraíbas é fantástico. Os dias são quentes e cheios de sol e as noites são frias e claras.

a) Chove raramente e nunca neva.

b) A temperatura na Europa é fria.

c) Chove sempre a cântaros.

____

10\.

a) Os calculadores de bolso podem fazer quase todo o tipo de contas.

b) É muito mais fácil fazer contas com um calculador.

c) O uso de calculadores tem-se expandido nos últimos anos.

____ Uma das razões deve-se talvez ao facto das pessoas acreditarem que os calculadores não fazem erros. Outra deve-se talvez ao facto das pessoas acreditarem que carregar em botões é muito mais fácil do que ter que pensar.

11. O António queria comprar terra para plantar cactos. Os cactos são plantas que precisam de um solo arenoso que não absorva água em demasia. Quando ele foi à loja para comprar a terra reparou que havia várias qualidades.

a) Uma das embalagens tinha um rótulo que dizia: " Para plantas que necessitam de muita água."

b) Uma das embalagens tinha um rótulo que dizia: " Para todas as plantas caseiras. "

c) Uma das em balagens tinha um rótulo que dizia: " Para plantas de regiões desertas que necessitam de solo arenoso. "

____ Ele pensou imediatamente que esta embalagem não tinha terra boa para os cactos.

12. O irmão da Ana perguntou-lhe se ela podia ir ao supermercado em vez dele.

a) -- Talvez no supermercado.--

b) -- Talvez pudesses lá ir. --

c) -- Talvez possa. --

____ Respondeu a Ana.

13. Quando ele entrou na casa dela viu cinco gatos na casa de jantar e perguntou-lhe: ______________________________

a) — Qual gato? —

b) — Qual destes gatos é o teu? —

c) — Qual dos gatos? —

14. Foi em Inglaterra, em 1825, que se inaugurou a primeira linha de caminho de ferro para transporte de passageiros.

a) Este combóio tinha 21 carruagens.

b) Este combóio devia parar todas as 15 ou 17 milhas para meter água.

c) Esta linha tinha uma via única.

______________________________ Só alguns anos mais tarde as linhas de via dupla começaram a ser usadas.

15. O Mário foi a casa num instante buscar as suas coisas porque tinha que apanhar o combóio.

a) Pôs tudo rapidamente na mala, pegou no casaco e saíu.

b) Ele teve que esperar 15 minutos na bicha para comprar o bilhete enquanto olhava ansiosamente para o relógio.

c) Quando ele chegou à plataforma o combóio já lá estava.

______________________________ Quando ele chegou à estação faltava apenas um minuto para a partida.

16. Ontem fui a casa de um amigo meu.

a) Enquanto lá estive nós estivemos a discutir e a gritar um com o outro todo o tempo.

b) Enquanto lá estive nós estivemos a ver televisão todo o tempo.

c) Enquanto lá estive eu ajudei-o a arranjar o rádio.

____________________________________ Quando me vim embora estava aborrecidíssimo com ele e arrependido de ter lá ido.

17\.

a) A noite passada não consegui encontrar os meus chinelos.

b) Há dois dias atrás não consegui encontrar as minhas luvas.

c) Ontem não consegui encontrar as minhas botas.

____________________________________ Eu sabia que as tinha usado logo de manhã, mas depois elas desapareceram. Felizmente, encontrei-as no dia seguinte. Se as tivesse posto no sítio delas tinha-as encontrado logo.

18. Toda a gente concordou que os palhaços tinham sido a melhor parte do espectáculo. O maior e mais autoritário dos palhaços estava contantemente a obrigar o mais pequeno e o mais tímido a subir a uma escada com um balde de água para lavar janelas, __________________________

a) no entanto, cada vez que um chegava lá acima, a água entornava-se e molhava o que estava em baixo.

b) no entanto, cada vez que o mais pequeno chegava lá acima entornava a água por cima do que estava em baixo.

c) no entanto, cada vez que ele chegava lá acima, o outro deixava cair o balde e molhava o que estava em baixo.

19. — Ele deu-te a tua prenda? —

a) — Sim, deu-ma ontem. —

b) — Sim, a tua. —

c) — Sim, a prenda. —

______________________________ Disse a Susana.

20. Os remédios quando tomados em demasia podem fazer mal à saúde.

____

a) Portanto nunca os devemos tomar sem indicação médica.

b) Logo, devemos tomá-los.

c) No entanto, nunca os devemos tomar sem indicação médica.

21. Após uma semana com temperaturas abaixo de zero, o gelo estava óptimo para se poder patinar. De manhã, o Henrique e o João combinaram ir jogar hóquei depois da escola com os seus amigos.

____

a) Infelizmente, como o tempo aqueceu na manhã seguinte, o gelo derreteu-se e eles tiveram que cancelar o jogo.

b) Infelizmente, como os amigos não estavam lá nesse dia, eles tiveram que jogar sòzinhos.

c) Infelizmente começou a nevar depois do almoço e eles já não puderam patinar.

22\.

a) — Sei lá. —

b) — Eu sei. —

c) — Eles sabem. —

______________________________________ Disse a Rosa quando lhe perguntaram se ela gostaria de estudar Chinês.

23. — Quando é que a tua tia chega? — Perguntou o Carlos à Alice.

a) — Ela tinha chegado ontem. —

b) — Ela chegara há uma semana. —

c) — Ela chega amanhã. —

______________________________________ Disse a Alice.

24. — Não consigo encontrar a minha tesoura. — Disse a senhora Dona Alda. — Alguém por acaso a viu? —

a) — Não será aquela? — Disse a Maria enquanto se baixava para apanhar a tesoura.

b) — Não será esta? — Disse a Maria pegando na tesoura que estava em cima da mesa.

c) — Não será essa? — Disse a Maria mostrando a tesoura que tinha na mão.

____

— É essa mesma. — Disse a senhora Dona Alda. — Muito obrigada. —

25. Cerca de um terço da população mundial fala e escreve Chinês. Embora falem diferentes dialectos e nem sempre se possam perceber uns aos outros quando conversam, os Chineses têm um sistema de escrita comum.

____

a) Deste modo, eles têm dificuldade em comunicarem uns com os outros.

b) Deste modo, eles podem comunicar através da escrita e da leitura.

c) Deste modo, eles podem falar uns com os outros sem problemas.

26

a) As pessoas, por vezes, bebem coisas que lhes podem fazer mal.

b) As pessoas, por vezes, bebem coisas que não são prejudiciais à saúde.

c) As pessoas, por vezes, bebem sumos que têm bastantes vitaminas.

____________________________________ Demasiado café pode torná-las nervosas, demasiado alcool pode causar-lhes graves doenças.

27. A Sandra costuma fazer bolos com nozes mas sem chocolate.

____

a) O Miguel costuma fazer bolos com chocolate mas sem nozes.

b) O Miguel também faz bolos sem nozes ou sem chocolate.

c) O Miguel também faz bolos com nozes.

28.

a) Há já muitas semanas que não via o meu amigo João.

b) Há já cinco meses que não tinha visto o meu amigo João.

c) Há já muito tempo que não vejo o meu amigo João.

__________________________________ É por isso que estou a desejar de o ver esta tarde.

29. A Rosa vive na nossa rua. ____

a) Todos os dias ela e o irmão vão fazer compras.

b) Todos os dias o irmão e a Rosa vão passear juntos.

c) Todos os dias a Rosa e o irmão delas vão para a escola juntos.

30. Dispor de alimentos frescos não é condição suficiente para se ser um bom cozinheiro.

a) Era importante conhecer as especiarias e os vários temperos.

b) Bons cozinheiros é o que há mais.

c) Ter noção do tempo que os alimentos levam a cozinhar, bom gosto e boa imaginação, são também condições importantes.

______________________________________ É por isso que é difícil encontrar um bom cozinheiro.

APPENDIX E:8

SC6____________________

____

Name:______________________________

School:____________________________

Grade:_____________________________

Date of Test:________________________

Date of Birth:________________________

PORTUGUESE COMPOSITIONS

CARTA DE PEDIDO DE INFORMAÇÃO

Imagina que tu e os teus pais, daqui a um mês, pensam ir passar férias a uma província de Portugal que nenhum de vocês conhece ainda. Escreve uma carta urgente a um Departamento de Turismo em Portugal pedindo-lhes que te enviem catálogos e informações. (Podes imaginar a província que quiseres).

Tens 15 minutos para completar a carta.

UMA NOTA ESCRITA

Os pais do João estão à espera de uns familiares que vêm de Portugal para passarem algum tempo em casa deles. O quarto do João está muito desarrumado e ele espalhou algumas das suas coisas pelo chão da casa de jantar. A mãe dele não está nada contente. Quando ele vem da escola ela não está em casa mas deixou-lhe uma nota escrita (em Português) em cima da mesa da cozinha. Imagina que tu és a mãe do João e escreve a nota que tu pensas que ela lhe deixou.

Tu tens 10 minutos para completar a nota.

APPENDIX E:9

English Oral Grammar and Discourse Test

Pre-taping instructions:

> The first test that we give you is just to test to see how you talk - a kind of general conversation test, so I want you to sound as natural as you possibly can. What that means is - if I say to you something like - "What is your name?" - don't say to me "My name is ..." just say " ...". On the other hand, if I say "Could you describe your teacher for me?" don't say "My teacher's OK" - talk as much as you can, because we want to hear as much conversation as we can. Is that clear?

Are you ready?

Section I - Warm up

1. What's your name?

2. What's the name of your school?

3. What grade are you in?

4. How old are you?

5. Do you have brothers or sisters? ... Tell me about them.

Section II - Preposition and Verb Control

6. Where do you sleep at home? Could you describe the room? (Prompt Once Only - Could you tell me where x,y,z are in your room?)

7. What are you going to do today after school?

8. Can you tell me 3 things you did before you came to school today?

9. What would you do if you won a million dollars in the lottery?

Section III - Pronunciation

Listen carefully, are these words the same? If they are the same, say "same"; if they are different, say "different".

10. moss - moth

11. dance - dense

12. cat - cat

13. feet - fit

Section IV - Picture Compositions - Discourse

14. Take the picture out of the envelope in front of you. Look at it for a minute;then I'm going to ask you to tell me the story the pictures tell ... Tell me the story. Don't show me the picture. I don't want to see it, so remember that when you're telling me the story.

Section V - Discourse and Vocabulary

15. Could you describe a telephone in detail. Tell me what it looks like.

Section VI - Pronunciation

Listen carefully, are these words the same? If they are the same, say "same"; if they are different, say "different".

16. shoes - choose

17. pan - pan

18. hot - ought

19. run - ran

APPENDIX E:10

English Oral Sociolinguistic Test

Initial Instructions:

What we'll be doing now is a test of the ability to speak to different people in different situations.

You know that you don't speak to everyone in the same way. For example, if you wanted to ask a close friend what time it was, what would you say? (Wait for student to answer.)

Now, if you saw the principal in the corridor and wanted to ask what time it was, what would you say? (Wait for answer.)

(If student answers appropriately, i.e., differently for the different addressees): You see, you didn't ask the time in the same way when you spoke to those people.

(If student makes little or no distinction): Is that really the way you would speak to a close friend? (or, the principal?)

(Do not suggest more appropriate ways of speaking; prompt the student with comparisons of what they've said or with another addressee or situation until they generate a good contrast.)

In the test, respond as if it were a natural situation. Try to behave as if it were really happening to you. Do you understand so far?

We'll start the tape now. On the tape are more instructions, and an example to try. After the example, I'll stop the tape and you can ask any questions you might have. All right?

(Once the actual test has started, if the student does not understand, play back the relevant part of the tape - from the start of the situation if doing the first addressee; otherwise the current addressee only - but don't say anything. The tester should be as unobtrusive as possible.)

(Discourage long involved answers - encourage them to focus on the essential speech act, by saying that it isn't necessary to give so much detail, or some such thing. If it is necessary to do this, do it between situations, not between addressees.)

(Avoid responding with "OK", "Mhmm", etc. after the student answers.)

Transcript of tape (1) for male students and tape (2) for female students, to accompany slides.

You will be presented with seven situations which should be quite familiar to you. For each situation you will see two slides. Each slide will show a person who you will be asked to speak to.

First you will hear a description of the situation, then you will see a slide. You will be told who the person on the slide is, and what you are to tell this person. When you hear a "beep" it will be your turn to speak.

Before we start, here are slides of two people. Imagine that they are people you know very well.

(1) This is yourfriend (1) Bob.
(2) Ann.

(2) This is your teacher, Mr. Warren.

Let's do an example:

Description of the first situation:

You have arranged to meet someone at a certain time, but you arrive very late. You want to apologize to the person who is waiting for you.

First slide:

(3) The person waiting for you is your friend (1) Bob. (2) Ann. You were supposed to go to a show together. What would you say to (1) him (2) her to apologize for being late?

Second slide:

(4) This person is the music teacher. She is waiting for you in order to start practising for your class concert. What would you say to her to apologize for being late?

If you have any questions, please ask them now, before we begin.

Second situation:

You have been absent from school for three days and missed some mathematics classes. There is a math test in two days, so you decide to ask someone to help you with the work you missed.

(5) When you get to school, you see your teacher, Mr. Warren, getting out of his car. What would you say if you wanted to ask him for help with your math?

(6) On the way to school, you see your friend (1) Bob. What would you say,
(2) Ann.

if you wanted to ask (1) him for help with your math?
(2) her

Third situation:

You are waiting in a line, and the person behind you keeps bumping you. It is annoying you, so you decide to ask the person to stop doing it.

(7) What would you say if you were in line for a bus, and the person bumping you was your friend (1) Bob?
(2) Ann?

(8) What would you say if you were in line to get tickets to a theatre, and the person bumping you was an adult you did not know?

Fourth situation:

You are in the school auditorium. You notice someone who cannot see the stage very well because there is a column in the way. The seat beside you is empty because you were saving it for someone. You decide to offer the seat to this person so that they will have a better view.

(9) What would you say if you wanted to offer the seat beside you to your friend (1) Bob?
(2) Ann?

(10) What would you say if you wanted to offer the seat beside you to this adult who you do not know?

Fifth situation:

You are in the library, trying to study. Two people are talking at the next table. One person is talking very loudly, and it is bothering you. You decide to ask this person to talk more softly.

(11) What would you say if the person bothering you was this lady who you do not know?

(12) What would you say if the person who was bothering you was your friend (1) Bob
(2) Ann
who was talking to another student from your class?

Sixth situation:

You are at school, and happen to overhear someone asking where they can buy a special pen which they need tomorrow. An art store near your house has these pens, so you decide to offer to buy one for them on your way home.

(13) You overhear a teacher you do not know talking to your teacher after class. What would you say if you wanted to offer to buy the pen for her on your way home?

(14) You overhear your friend (1) Bob talking to someone in the schoolyard.
(2) Ann

What would you say if you wanted to offer to buy the pen for (1) him
(2) her
on your way home?

Seventh situation:

You are working in the public library and need a ruler. You see that someone near you has one, so you ask if you can borrow theirs.

(15) The person is your friend (1) Bob who is working at the same table
(2) Ann

as you. What would you say if you wanted to borrow (1) his ruler?
(2) her

(16) The person is the librarian, who is working at a counter. What would you say if you wanted to borrow her ruler?

APPENDIX F

The Chinese Community/School Study

Grace Pung Guthrie

Introduction

This exploratory study is a six-month post-doctoral research project designed to provide an environmental and sociocultural context for a planned, more focussed investigation of Chinese-Canadian children's language acquisition at home and school. The objectives of the study are:

1. To find out how English and Chinese (its various dialects) are used in the Toronto Chinese community (at home and in public), in the schools, and in the Chinese heritage language programs;

2. To explore the Chinese community's attitudes toward the maintenance of Chinese language and culture in Canada and toward Chinese heritage education in the community and schools;

3. To examine how these attitudes influence the initiation, design, and implementation of heritage language programs and how these programs, in turn, affect the language use and maintenance efforts in the community itself; and

4. To investigate the interactional effect of these various elements on the actual language use in the community and to provide insights into how such community language use may influence the development of bilingual proficiency in Chinese children.

Methodology

To accomplish such an ambitious goal within the relatively short time of six months would appear to necessitate the use of what has been called 'blitzkrieg ethnography' (see Rist 1980). After all, the assumption underlying traditional ethnography as employed by anthropologists was that "a single individual (sometimes a couple) would go to the fieldsite, become enmeshed in the life of that site, and only after a long and involved period of time, begin to formulate a framework for the analysis," and that "theory was 'grounded' in experience" (Rist 1980:9). Obviously, it would be difficult to accomplish this within the time-frame of six months. My position in the proposed study is a unique one, however. First, because of my own personal history, as an ethnic Chinese and native speaker of two Chinese dialects, I should have comparatively easy access to different elements of the community. Second, because of my extended and intensive fieldwork experience in a Chinese community in California from 1980 to 1982, I came to the new fieldsite with considerable background knowledge regarding the issues of interest. The insights and understanding gained from that study concerning bilingualism and bilingual education in the community and the school (see Guthrie in press) should prove invaluable in formulating the direction of the present investigation. I hope to be able to build the present study on the previous one and thus avoid the possible pitfalls of a 'blitzkrieg ethnography'.

In the simplest terms ethnography is the study of culture. It is, as Bauman (1972) defined it, "the process of constructing through direct personal observation of social behavior, a theory of the working of a particular culture in terms as close as possible to the way members of that culture view the universe and organize their behavior within it." In Malinowski's words, the goal of ethnography is "to grasp the native's point of view, his relation to life, to realize his vision of his world" (Malinowski 1922).

In the process of understanding another people's point of view the ethnographer produces a rich, and often vivid, account of their daily life, interactions, beliefs and customs. In other words, he or she creates what has been called a 'thick description' (Geertz 1973). Through daily contact with the members of the society, and through his or her own investigative techniques, the ethnographer comes to understand the society to such an extent that he or she is able to describe its structure, to see the world as its members do, and to understand their customs. As Lutz (1981:52) puts it,

> Ethnography is a holistic thick description of the interactive processes involving the discovery of important and recurring variables in the society as they relate to one another, under specified conditions, and as they affect or produce certain results and outcomes in the society.

Recent applications of ethnography in educational settings have been predominantly the types known as 'microethnography' or 'constitutive ethnography' whose research focus is on holistic and qualitative analysis and description of reading groups, lessons, and classroom interactions (see Gilmore and Glatthorn 1982; Green and Wallat 1981; Trueba, Guthrie, and Au 1981). Increasingly, such micro-approaches have been criticized for lack of significance. More meaningful answers and understanding of the educational processes must take into account the wider contexts outside of the classroom and the schools (Heath 1980, 1982; Ogbu 1981). As Ogbu (1981:15) argued:

> An adequate ethnography of schooling cannot be confined to studying events in school classrooms, the home, or playground. One must also study relevant society and historical forces.

The present study is such a multi-level ethnography (Ogbu 1981; Guthrie in press). Participant observation (Spradley 1980) and ethnographic interviews (Spradley 1979), the two standard and central techniques of ethnographic fieldwork, have been conducted in the Toronto Chinese community and schools since January 1983. Archival research was also undertaken to supplement the above activities. Existing books, newspaper and magazine articles, and research reports on the Chinese-Canadian issues and situations were actively researched to prepare the researcher's entry into the fieldsite and to guide the selection of key informants and events for observations and interviews.

Casagrande (1960) put very nicely what an ethnographer has to go through in his or her fieldwork:

> Field research is a challenging scientific undertaking, an adventure of both the mind and the spirit. Immersed in the life around him, the anthropologist may experience an exhilarating sense of coming to understand another people and of being accepted by them. He may also at times undergo a shattering feeling of isolation, of strangeness and disorientation, and yearns for the comfort of accustomed things. Herein lies a dilemma, for he is neither a full participant in the life he studies, nor simply a passive background observer of it. He is something of both, a role nicely summarized in the double term, "participant-observer." Not born to the alien culture or committed to it, the anthropologist must stand at a certain psychological and emotional distance from it. If he is an objective scientist, he cannot "go native." Neither can he hold himself aloof and observe human behaviour as a naturalist might watch a colony of ants; with fellow humans there is both the possibility and necessity of communication. One's capacity for imaginatively entering into the life of another people becomes a primary qualification for the ethnographer. For the anthropologist the field is thus the fountainhead of knowledge, serving him as both laboratory and library.

Even though I am an outsider to the Toronto Chinese Community and the Canadian society and, thus, enjoy the detached perspective of an outsider, I am also an insider in the sense that I share the linguistic and cultural background of many Chinese in Toronto and share similar educational experiences and concerns with many Torontonians, Chinese or non-Chinese. Thanks to the shared roots and concerns, I was able to quickly establish rapport and trust with key contacts in the Chinese community and in the educational hierarchy. In this respect, I have also been ably assisted by a part-time research officer, Virginia Pang Won, whose family ties in the community have proved to be an invaluable source of information for my understanding of the new fieldsite. She has become one of my key informants and in the process has learned to step outside of her daily world and look back into it more objectively (for the critical balance required of ethnographers between insider/outsider perspectives, involvement/detachment, and the role of participant/observer, see Agar 1980; Powdermaker 1966).

To date, I have conducted eight key-informant interviews, each lasting from one hour to two or three hours, with community social workers, leaders, parents, and school personnel. All these interviews were taped and transcribed. I have also conducted numerous informal, non-taped interviews with merchants, community members at large, school principals, heritage language instructors, community and school program administrators, regular school teachers, parents, and students. A semi-structured interview schedule was developed in April 1983 based on the questions, concerns, and folk terminologies culled from the initial phase of fieldwork. The interview schedule has been used with 18 Chinese-Canadian parents (often both father and mother were present at the interview, and were counted as one). We are presently identifying a sample of parents from a variety of socio-economic, linguistic, cultural, and immigration backgrounds, regardless of whether their children are in the Chinese heritage language programs or not.

Participant observation has also been carried out in a variety of settings: at various community centres, schools, classrooms, homes, churches, markets, restaurants, and special Chinese cultural events. Most of the observation has been of the informal non-obtrusive sort. In these observations, fieldnotes were taken following the observation. In the classrooms and in the schools, however, observation was much more formal. Fieldnotes were taken on the spot, and then rewritten into clear prose as soon as possible after leaving the field. So far, I have observed 21 heritage language classes --some more than once. In addition, one grade 3 class in a Chinatown public school was observed for two full days. A grade 4 class in another school, with a smaller concentration of Chinese students and more students from middle class and professional families, will be observed for two days. On these full-day observations, I follow the children throughout the school day and experience with them all their classes, including the Chinese lessons.

At present, contacts are being made and plans are underway for me to interview a few leading educators in private Chinese schools in the community and, if possible, to observe these schools, and visit more heritage language classes and talk to the teachers and students. (Many of the after-hours Chinese heritage teachers have their own children in the program.) I will also participate in Chinese heritage curriculum development committee meetings. In short, the fieldwork is just about to enter an intensive stage now that much of the groundwork has been accomplished.

Even though I personally would like to observe as many events, classrooms, and schools as possible and even participate in meetings regularly in order to gain as much first-hand experience and as deep an understanding as possible, there are very realistic constraints on my time and energy. In this ethnography, then, I rely heavily on the goodwill and trust of teachers, administrators, and community social workers to refer me, introduce me to their colleagues and friends, and, thus, open new doors for me. Without such goodwill, trust, and cooperation, it will take me six months just to build new contacts, negotiate entry, and build up rapport before real fieldwork can begin. Good fortune and serendipity are known to play important roles in the fieldwork, and I have had a good share of both. Emphasizing my role of researcher as learner, apprentice, and child (see Agar 1980; Burnett 1974), I have found many willing 'teachers' in the Toronto Chinese community and schools.

In the rest of the paper, I will try to give a brief overview of what I have found in my fieldwork so far. Since we are still very much in the midst of conducting interviews and participant observation, what follows will be at best a skeletal portrait, a shadow, or even a mere inventory of the final ethnographic report. Leading ethnographers of the past and present have consistently urged field researchers to analyze and write up what is being studied as soon as possible even before the completion of fieldwork (Malinowski 1922; Schatzman and Strauss 1973; Wolcott 1975). As Spradley (1980:160) pointed out:

> Most ethnographers would do well to set aside the feelings that writing is premature and begin the task sooner rather than later. In the process of writing one discovers a hidden store of knowledge gained during the research process.

Through the intense concentration and immersion in the data in the writing process, new insights, understanding, and ideas often occur, and gaps in one's information and/or the shortcomings of the methods used in data collection also become acutely apparent. New directions and foci for further inquiry thus emerge in the writing of a preliminary ethnography. Ideally, this process of fieldwork, data analysis, and writing of an ethnography should be repeated over and over until the study nears completion. In the present study, my attention has been on the fieldwork itself. I hope to collect as much data as possible within my six-month stay and plan to do systematic analysis and write-up only after I leave the field. However, to safeguard the completeness and meaningfulness of the data, all incoming information is carefully recorded, and quickly reviewed and synthesized. The following then is the result of such a preliminary understanding of the language and cultural issues in the Chinese community of Toronto.

Preliminary Findings

The Chinese settlement in Toronto can be traced back to the 1870's. It used to be a highly segregated community of bachelor labourers and a few merchant families from the arid region of Taishan in Guangdong Province, China (for the history and organization of early Chinese communities in Toronto and Canada, see Con, Con, Johnson, Wickberg, Willmott 1982; Thompson 1979). After World War II came a great number of Chinese immigrants, many of whom were of the professional and scholarly class; the characteristics of the Chinese immigrant community gradually changed. Taishan, however, remained the dominant dialect in the community. In the late 1960's, the liberalized immigration policy attracted another wave of Chinese immigrants from Hong Kong and other Southeast Asian countries in the British Commonwealth. Cantonese gradually became the lingua franca of the Chinese community. Nowadays, even though Cantonese is still undoubtedly the lingua franca of the Chinatown Chinese community, the community itself has become increasingly more and more heterogeneous. Due to the unstable governments and economies in many parts of the world, more and more Chinese merchants and entrepreneurs have come to Toronto to re-establish their business and homes.

On the one hand, there are highly modernized and sophisticated Chinese from Hong Kong, Malaysia, South Africa, Brazil, India, Japan, etc., and many of these have family, kinship, or business ties with many different parts of the world. On the other hand, there are also Chinese immigrants who are illiterate in both English and Chinese coming in from distant villages of Guangdong Province to join their relatives here.

To illustrate the diversity and heterogeneity of Chinese in Toronto, the following are a few brief profiles of Chinese families we have come in contact with (all names are pseudonyms):

> Family A: Mr. Chong was born in China and raised in Hong Kong. Cantonese is his mother tongue. When he was a teenager, he moved to Vietnam with his parents and acquired some Vietnamese and French there. Then he went to Taiwan for his university education and met his wife who was a student at a university nearby. He learned to speak Mandarin in Taiwan.
>
> He and his wife settled in Hong Kong for a few years before emigrating to Brazil to start his own business. The family stayed in Brazil for ten years. Most of their children were born there, and they started to use Portuguese at home. Today Mr. Chong thinks that he speaks Portuguese the best among all the foreign languages he knows.
>
> Four years ago, the whole family moved to Canada. Two more children were born in Toronto. At the moment, the older children who have been attending schools here speak English among themselves, but are required to use Cantonese with their parents. The younger ones who have not reached school age speak Cantonese at home. Mr. and Mrs. Chong, however, prefer speaking Mandarin between themselves. Mr. Chong pointed out proudly during the interview that his second daughter speaks Portuguese, French,

Chinese (Cantonese), and English fluently. He expects all his six children to be at least trilingual.

Family B: Mr. Wu came from Shanghai, China. His father is a Hakka speaker, but Shanghainese—the mother's native tongue—was the home language while Mr. Wu was growing up. He learned Cantonese and English in Hong Kong before coming over to Canada for his university education. He met his wife while both were students at McGill. Mrs. Wu came from a Fukienese-speaking family. Both her parents were university-educated and often used Mandarin with each other. Mrs. Wu's family moved to Hong Kong in 1948; Cantonese and English became her school and peer language. Now Mr. and Mrs. Wu deliberately use Mandarin at home, even though English does slip in whenever they tease each other or are telling jokes. They want their children to learn to speak Mandarin at home, for they think Mandarin is the language of wider usage and higher status. Nowadays they use mainly Cantonese with their friends, clients, and in their daily life in Chinatown. Cantonese being the lingua franca of the Chinese community in Toronto, they, therefore, do not think their children will have any problems acquiring Cantonese. They have sent their five-year-old daughter to both Cantonese and Mandarin after-hours heritage programs. Now she is enrolled in a French-English bilingual kindergarten. Shortly after she started school, she came home willing to speak English only, and her Chinese deteriorated rapidly.

Mrs. Wu talked about her conflict with her husband on their daughter's language use at home:

> I have a lot of argument with him, in terms of approach and strategies. I guess, he is more forthright than I am. For the past two weekends, we have argument on this subject. In a way, I am more lenient, if Marie speaks to me in English, I just keep answering back in Chinese, I don't force or push her to speak in Chinese. Well, Robert's idea is, if you want her to speak in Chinese, she has to communicate with you in Chinese. So anything she speaks in English to him, he just ignores her. He won't answer back. At times it's very agitating, irritating for me even. Now with a younger brother Daniel in the family as well, at times I feel that Marie is not getting that much attention already. Both of us have jobs and Daniel's more demanding. It takes more time to take care of him. I was telling Robert what he was doing is sort of excluding Marie out of picture, like he is talking to Daniel and Marie interjects in English, Robert just ignore her, or he will answer (in Mandarin) "What? What?". After a while, Marie just stop talking to him, and leaning more onto me and trying speaking more English to me. And Robert starts picking on me, and we got into a very big argument.

Family C: Miss Wong and her sisters do not know quite how to decide what their native tongue is. She was born into a Hakka and Japanese-speaking family in Taiwan. At age 6, she moved with her parents to Japan to pursue their university education. All her younger sisters were born in Japan. Japanese quickly became the home language, even though the parents still used Hakka and Mandarin with each other. The family came to Canada in 1969. Miss Wong recalled having a hard time picking up English. Her sisters, especially the younger ones, did not have as much of a problem. They now often use English with each other. Japanese is still the most common and frequently used tongue at home. Her younger sisters tried the Cantonese heritage programs for a little while but had a hard time with Cantonese. If there were a Mandarin program in their schools, they might consider taking the classes again. But they really are not sure about this; Japanese seems to be more of their heritage than Chinese. English, however, is much more a priority language right now in the mind of the entire family, including the parents who are both busy pursuing their own professional careers in this country.

Miss Wong had this to say about her parents' ethnic identification: I think my father considers himself Taiwanese before anything, he is very clear in that. My mother, I think, is not as clear. She was really brought up in a Japanese fashion. You know, even in Taiwan, she finds it very difficult to compromise herself, very difficult to identify herself as one nationality and one culture, because she really blends in very well with all three cultures.

Family D: Mrs. Yan was born and raised in Singapore. She used to speak English and Mandarin in Singapore. Before coming to Canada, she studied nursing for three years in England. She finds herself most comfortable with English and considers it her first language. Her husband was born in China but brought up in Hong Kong. He is equally fluent in Cantonese and Taishan. Mrs. Yan reported that English and Cantonese are used equally frequently at home. She has learned to speak Cantonese with her husband, his family and relatives, and their customers. She said, "we encourage them (the children) to use Chinese at home. We try to insist that they speak Chinese." Apparently, they have not been very successful in enforcing the policy. At the moment, Mr. Yan's mother is living with them and helping Mrs. Yan take care of the children. Since the grandmother only speaks Cantonese and Taishan, the children have learned to understand more Chinese.

Family E: Mr. and Mrs. Chu were born and raised in Taishan. Mr. Chu came to work in Canada about 26 years ago. His wife stayed in Canton City with their two children. Ten years later, Mrs. Chu and children were finally allowed to immigrate to Canada. Three more children were subsequently born in Canada. The Chus used to operate a restaurant in a small French-speaking town in Northern Ontario. While there, their two older children went to an English school. They would speak English in school and Taishan at home. They could also read and write some Chinese — a vestige of their education in China. When the three Canadian-born children reached school age, they also attended the English school. The siblings use English with each other and with their father who can comprehend some English. Mrs. Chu, however, can only speak Taishan and barely understands any English. She uses Taishan with her children who then reply in simple Taishan or English.

In 1980, Mrs. Chu and her three Canadian-born children moved to Toronto to live with her eldest son. Mr. Chu stayed behind in the small town to run the business. They made this move partly because Mr. Chu wants his three younger children to learn some Chinese in the Toronto heritage programs. At the moment, only two of the children are taking the Cantonese heritage classes. The other one is in high school and claims that she has too much school work already to handle anything extra. The two in the heritage program have encountered a few problems due to the difference in their home dialect and that of the teacher and the program. They are often confused by the two dialects.

On the whole, they think the program is somewhat beneficial to them because they can now understand their mother better and use more Chinese to communicate with her. Mrs. Chu is also learning to use Cantonese with her children and her daughter-in-law who is a Cantonese speaker from Hong Kong. However, the younger generation use only English among themselves in spite of the eldest son's efforts to use Taishan from time to time.

Family F: Mr. Chin was born and raised in Taishan, China. He came to Canada when he was nine years old. He had to go to school and work in the restaurant at the same time. When he was around 20, he came to Toronto on his own to try his luck here. Today he is a very successful and well-known businessman in the community.

When he was 21, he went back to Hong Kong to marry his wife who was born in China but grew up in Hong Kong. They now have four children. Mr. and Mrs. Chin are really busy with their own business and hardly have any time for their children. With whatever free time they have, they'd rather watch Chinese video cassettes or play mah-jong with friends and relatives. They seem to think the children will take care of themselves.

They use Cantonese with each other, Taishan with relatives, and both with their children; the latter, however, speak almost entirely in English.

Family G: Mr. Tang was born in China but moved to Hong Kong with his parents when he was quite young. His family was quite poor then, they could only afford to send him to elementary school. Mrs. Tang came from a very similar background. In 1968 they immigrated to England and ran a small restaurant there. They both worked very hard and the business was very successful. However, after visiting their relatives in Toronto, they decided their children would have a better future here. The family moved to Toronto about five years ago. The couple have learned to speak English relatively fluently because of their business. The children were all born in England. The parents always use Cantonese with their children who, however, use

> English only among themselves. The Tangs send their children to a private after-hours Chinese school in Scarborough. For each child, the parents have to pay $55 per term for school fees.
>
> Family H: Mr. Lee, half-Cantonese and half-Hakka, was born and raised in Singapore. Besides his two home dialects, he is also fluent in English, Malay, Indonesian, Mandarin, Fukienese, and Chaozhou. He attributes his multilingual ability largely to his schooling experience in Singapore where he encountered schoolmates of various Chinese and Malay origins, and to his extensive business travels in Southeast Asia and Far East. Before moving his restaurant business into Toronto in October 1982, he had scouted all the major cities in North America for business possibilities. He now owns a Singaporean/Malaysian restaurant in a multiethnic neighbourhood.

As pointed out earlier, the Chinese community used to be quite homogeneous with Taishan (or "Toisan" in Cantonese pronunciation) as the lingua franca of commerce. Chinese was actively maintained out of necessity as a result of residential segregation and racial discrimination. With the great influx of Chinese immigrants from Hong Kong after the relaxation of immigration laws in the late sixties, Cantonese became the lingua franca. In spite of the varied home language backgrounds of today's Chinese in Toronto, as illustrated by the brief profiles above, our informants do not hesitate to point out that Cantonese is the dominant language, if not the only language, in the community, especially in the Chinatown area. Our observation confirms this. In shops, restaurants, and on the streets, Cantonese is heard most of the time. Only once in a while can one hear Mandarin used, even though many merchants and clerks have the ability to carry out their business transactions in Mandarin.

Not only is Cantonese and its regional dialects heard throughout Chinatown streets and business establishments, but Chinese writing on food packages, restaurants, store signs, and advertisements for cultural and recreational events are visible everywhere. There are also many Chinese bookstores selling a dozen local, North American and international Chinese newspapers and magazines published mainly in Hong Kong, Taiwan, and China. Many record shops are doing a brisk business selling and renting Chinese audio and video tapes of songs, films, and TV serials produced in Hong Kong and Taiwan.

There is even an all-day Chinese radio station broadcasting every day of the week. Hundreds of Chinese businesses and homes subscribe to the radio service at a monthly rate of $17 to $30. Chinese TV programs are also available two nights a week. These programs at present consist mainly of soap operas and variety shows produced in Hong Kong or Taiwan.

In short, in the lives of many Chinatown Chinese, Chinese is still the main means of livelihood, communication, and recreation. All the people interviewed so far consider Chinese necessary in order to live and function in the Chinatowns (Chinatown West and Chinatown East; in the minds of many only the former is considered as the "Chinatown") in Toronto. As one informant said rather emphatically, "everyone is Chinese there, and it's odd to speak English to them. English is not necessary."

Since the relaxation of residential restrictions against Chinese at the end of World War II, most Chinese families have chosen to move out of Chinatown areas into more affluent neighbourhoods and suburbs as soon as they become financially able. Usually, the main reason for moving out of Chinatown is to provide their children with better educational environments and opportunities. Language shift quickly takes place among the younger generations in these families. With the gentrification process occurring in Toronto as in many major cities in North America, there seems to be a trend of young professional Chinese families staying in or moving back into Chinatown areas for more affordable housing, energy conservation, and convenience. These traditionally non-Chinatown Chinese are now a part of Chinatown, and their younger generation may have a better chance at developing and maintaining Chinese, given the dominance of the Chinese language in the community.

The Chinese in Toronto, like overseas Chinese elsewhere, have had a long tradition of educating their own in after-hours Chinese schools situated in the churches or family association buildings. When Chinese were not allowed to become citizens in the country, many Chinese had the 'sojourner's' attitude toward Canada. They looked forward to returning to their homeland as soon as enough money was made so that they could retire comfortably back home. Ties with the Chinese world, homeland, and familiarity with Chinese reading and writing were necessary for themselves and for their young. This tradition which grew out of necessity has been kept up with the present generation. Even with the government-funded heritage language programs provided to many of the Chinese-speaking children, these traditional Chinese schools still flourish, particularly in areas or boroughs where official Chinese heritage language programs are not yet in operation.

In spite of such community efforts at Chinese language instruction and the provision of Chinese heritage classes at public schools and various community centres, the parents interviewed have all observed with alarm how their children switch to using English at home shortly after they begin school. A mother who was an elementary school teacher in Hong Kong and is now a teacher at a private Chinese after-hours school reported on her experience:

> Some students who came from Hong Kong after primary 4 were very good in Chinese initially. But after a few years, their Chinese pronunciation ability deteriorated and they tend to forget a lot of the words. So the Chinese teachers have to use English to explain the more difficult terms to them.

On the one hand, Chinese parents are very much interested in having their young learn and maintain Chinese language and cultural values. On the other hand, Chinese parents unanimously consider English to be far more important than Chinese as long as their children intend to have a future in this society. For example, a well-informed Chinese school community liaison pointed out:

> I think as long as the learning of Chinese does not inhibit their ability to speak English, that's fine. But once if you study Chinese and because of that your English will be hampered, then they would not do that ... Well, you have to live here. You have to make a living here.

In the public schools, English is very much the dominant language of use. In the two schools I have observed, practically all the children used English throughout the day in class, on the playground, and even in the heritage classes; even though Chinese-Canadian children form the majority (60-80 per cent) in both schools. Many of these English-speaking Chinese children were observed to be competent in Cantonese. They would use Cantonese when their Chinese heritage teachers required them to do so, when they needed to communicate with limited-English-speaking New Canadian children (who tended to use Cantonese with their fellow ESL classmates), or when they had to interact with non-English-speaking adults in the neighborhood. One boy, in particular, comes to mind: out of the two whole days when I followed the class around, I only noticed him using Cantonese once. It was on the school yard during a PE class. He was trying to persuade a limited-English-speaking girl to give him the ball. He used English first a couple of times. When no reaction came forth from the girl, he used amazingly fluent Cantonese to convince the girl that she should give him the ball.

In one school, a Chinese card game was the new rage of the school. During free-time activity period, groups of boys and girls played the card game earnestly. If any non-Chinese children were involved in the game, English would be used to play the game. As soon as the non-Chinese children lost and left the game, Cantonese would take over as the language of the game, especially in calling out the names and arrangement of the cards.

In the Chinese heritage programs observed so far, the teachers have all tried to use as much Chinese as possible; however, they are often forced to use English because there are usually a number of Canadian-born Chinese children who do not understand much Cantonese at all. In many of these Chinese classes, there are two or three non-Chinese students who need special instruction in Chinese conversation first. In whole class situations, most students are able to read the Chinese text out loud, and discussion is usually in Chinese. However, as soon as the teacher's attention was turned, children would start conversing in English. I observed many incidents of the teacher insisting on children's use of Chinese in class. Some children may be willing to try, but are simply not able to do so.

From our interviews, it seems to be quite clear that there is a very strong commitment to the maintenance of Chinese cultural heritage. The history of the initiation, implementation, and integration of the Chinese heritage classes into the normal school day in two of the heavily Chinese-populated public schools is a history of the community's strong commitment to the teaching of Chinese to their young. However, there seems to be only a particular segment of the Chinese parents in Toronto who are most active and enthusiastic in supporting and working for the programs. These are mainly limited English-speaking working class families whose family life is clearly threatened by the rapid language loss of their young. Most English-speaking professional or middle-class Chinese parents do not seem to get involved in the activities. According to some non-Chinese informants, most parents are unconcerned about whether their children have the heritage program or not. Once the program is integrated in the school, however, they have learned to take advantage of it. In addition, with the mandate coming from the Toronto Board of Education and subsequently from the principal's office, many Chinese parents simply do not dare question the wisdom of the program.

However, Chinese parents often do not expect much out of the heritage programs. They are quite realistic about what the program's limited instructional time may be able to accomplish. Most only hope their children will acquire some understanding of Chinese and the ability to speak Chinese (and to read, if possible). Many parents were actually very articulate about what cultural values they hope the program will impart. As one father put it:

> The importance of this program is to let the children learn some Chinese so that they can communicate with

> their parents. If you send your child to buy some bread and he doesn't understand, so that's why it's so important. If you send him to buy eggs or some thing else, and he brings back a loaf of bread, that means he doesn't know. That's why it's so important.

A mother who has been most active in the introduction and implementation of the Chinese heritage program emphasized the importance of learning to respect the elders and to have good discipline. She went on eloquently to say what else she expected her children to learn from the heritage classes:

> At least they should know that they are Chinese and they should be proud of it. They shouldn't deny that they are Chinese and think that being Canadian is smarter. Once they have some education in Chinese, they can feel proud to be a Chinese and recognize the importance of our history. They should be aware of these facts. Each year I spend a large sum of money on buying tickets for dinner parties. I bought tickets for one whole table.
>
> Each year there are many festivals that our family association would celebrate. I like to take my children to participate in these Chinese celebrations so that they are aware of our custom and tradition. Each year I spend quite a bit of money on these parties. Every time we go, we have to get one table and two extra seats, it costs over $100 each time, but I don't care at all. I want my children to learn that we Chinese have this kind of tradition, custom and culture, a happy gathering with lucky draws, music and lantern riddles. They don't know what lantern riddles are and they will learn from these gatherings.
>
> When there is a birthday feast at the restaurant, I take my children there to let them know how Chinese celebrate their birthdays and what a happy event it is. If there is a wedding banquet, they have to dress up to go to this kind of celebrations. Even if we are going to drink tea (i.e. to have dim sum) in Chinatown, I want them to dress properly and never sloppy.
>
> At the present, it's most important for our children to learn to communicate with their parents in the family, if you insist that they learn to read and write, it is not easy. Even if we have 1/2 hour Chinese each day at the two schools, the children do not have enough practice, it's hard for them to learn to read and write. When they are studying, they might be able to memorize a few words, but they can't write a letter out of those few words.

> There are some parents who try to teach their children how to write letters after they come home from work, but that's very rare, about several in a thousand.
>
> Mainly because we don't have the time, we cannot expect too much from the children. If we demand too much, the children wouldn't even want to learn to speak.

Emerging Themes/Hypotheses

The following are a set of interrelated themes and hypotheses that have emerged from the fieldwork and preliminary analysis of the data:

1. Interethnic relations between the Chinese and the dominant English society are crucial in determining the language maintenance orientation of the Chinese community. In the past when integration and assimilation was denied to Chinese in Canada, Chinese immigrants could only look toward their homeland or look within the segregated Chinese community for personal and political expression. A Chinese world with parallel social organizations was created on a hostile soil, and the Chinese language and cultural values were well maintained in the community out of sheer necessity. As soon as assimilation became a possibility, many second-generation Chinese became well-acculturated and ceased to have anything to do with the Chinese community (here the class and English proficiency factors come into play). However, when encountering barriers toward further structural incorporation in their climb upwards, these well-acculturated Chinese may realize that they are not allowed full participation in the dominant society. They are invariably made aware once again of their own ethnic and colour difference from the ruling elite. With such awakening often comes a renewed commitment to one's own linguistic and cultural heritage. In brief, then, given the Chinese immigrants' strong integration and assimilation motives (perhaps coming from the deep-rooted Confucian belief in harmony), if the door of integration both for cultural assimilation and structural incorporation is fully open, the language maintenance efforts in the Chinese community

will not be as necessary. However, if Canada truly becomes a pluralistic society where different ethnic/cultural groups coexist on an equal basis, Chinese language and culture maintenance will be a natural development, for most Chinese take great pride in their 5000-year-old cultural heritage.

The present interethnic relationship between the Chinese and the dominant society engenders the following hypotheses with regard to social class differences related to attitudes toward Chinese language maintenance.

2. There exists a class difference in the attitudes toward Chinese language and cultural maintenance. Professional and middle class Chinese who have enjoyed a measure of cultural and structural integration into the dominant society do not seem to regard Chinese proficiency as important for their children, unless they are personally involved in the Chinese ethnic economy either as entrepreneurs or socio-cultural brokers of the two worlds, or unless they still have strong family ties with Hong Kong, China, or Taiwan. These people tend to live in non-Chinese neighbourhoods and send their children to all-English schools (they did so in Hong Kong and will continue to do so in Canada). Given the multilingual/multicultural backgrounds of many of these professional and middle-class Chinese families, language development is strongly encouraged. These parents generally consider "the more languages, the better" for their children, as long as these languages prove to be useful for their future success in career and life. In other words, if proficiency in Chinese is well rewarded in this society, these parents will educate and encourage their young to become fully proficient in Chinese. At present, they seem to place utmost importance on English almost to the exclusion of Chinese, and given the rising status of French in this society, they may tend to view French as more important than their heritage language. However, as commented on earlier, if they discover their upward mobility is limited and thwarted after a certain stage, they will actively encourage their children's development of Chinese as a fallback. In our

interviews, certain parents have indicated such awareness of limited opportunities in this White world and have subsequently worked toward inculcating Chinese language, history, and culture in their children.

In the case of working class families where often one or both parents are non- or limited-English-speaking, Chinese language maintenance is crucial to meaningful family communication and interaction. Many of these parents still live very much in an encapsulated Chinese environment and do not see any possibility of breaking through the barriers of language and culture and into the dominant society. Their livelihood tends to depend entirely on the Chinese ethnic economy also. Naturally they perceive the importance of their children's learning the mother tongue and traditional Chinese values. These are the parents who have been most actively involved in fighting for public-supported Chinese heritage classes. Through the assistance of community social workers and positive experiences in activism, many of these parents have developed a radical consciousness of their own rights and powers and have learned to organize for strength and impact. The danger lies in these parents' abdicating their own home language maintenance efforts and their relying exclusively on the schools and public institutions to teach their children Chinese and Chinese values, partly because of their trust in educational authorities, partly out of their own lack of ability, time, and energy (since most of these parents have to work long hours to subsist).

3. The existence of a strong ethnic community is crucial to the maintenance of the Chinese language in Toronto. As long as non- or limited-English-speaking Chinese immigrants continue to move into Toronto from various parts of the world and as long as a segment of the Chinese community continues to rely on the ethnic economy for their livelihood, the Chinatowns will prosper. Chinatowns do provide a very strong environmental support for children who live or go to schools in the area to develop their Chinese speaking, reading, and writing abilities. If their parents, teachers, and peers place a high

enough value on Chinese proficiency, these children will have little difficulty becoming fully bilingual in Chinese and English. In other words, full proficiency in Chinese will depend on the legitimacy of Chinese in the school curriculum and in the social, political, and economic arena.

To sum up, these themes/hypotheses suggest that any model of bilingual proficiency development must take into account the wider socio-political, economic, and historical contexts outside of the classrooms and schools.

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APPENDIX G

The Social Meaning of French and English in a Toronto French-Language School

Monica Heller

1.0 Introduction

The following is an interim report on an ethnographic, sociolinguistic study of the use of French and English in a French-language school in Toronto. Fieldwork began in mid-January and will continue until the end of the school year. Analysis and write-up will be completed by September 1983.

The goal of the project is to discover the social factors that influence language choice and language use at school, and at the same time to discover what those language patterns are and what their meaning is. The project is based on the hypothesis that language use in social interaction is a process of creating and exploiting linguistic resources in order to make sense of experience; this includes the management of interpersonal relations and the accomplishment of tasks.

1.1 Ethnographic sociolinguistics

Ethnographic (also known as 'interactionist') sociolinguistics adopts the viewpoint that the language that people produce, whether spoken or written, reflects a systematic interaction between aspects of linguistic structure and aspects of social organization as they occur in specific kinds of real-life situations. Further, people learn not only how to talk, but how to talk appropriately given who is talking, who is listening, what the topic is, and so on (Fishman 1965). That is, there are ways of talking that are considered normal, but 'normal' varies from situation to situation (a situation being the co-occurrence of participants, locale and activity; Hymes 1972; Goffman 1972). Finally, 'normality' is the product of a series of negotiations: people work out what certain ways of talking refer to, they negotiate the appropriate ways of talking. If they were not able to take certain kinds of behaviour for granted, they would have to start every interaction from scratch. Instead, repeated experience demonstrates that certain aspects of the world can be taken for granted. Through communication people can establish what can be taken for granted; ways of talking then come to symbolize that which is assumed, expected or taken for granted (Gumperz 1982; Tannen 1979). That is, there are certain linguistic conventions that are associated with situations, and symbolize aspects of those situations. Members of a speech community share knowledge about those conventions and about what they refer to or symbolize (Gumperz 1972).

1.2 Bilingual proficiency and the social meaning of languages

The important point for the study of bilingual proficiency is that languages are conventionally associated with different situations in daily life. Speaking one or the other language calls into play a frame of reference which is the product of the experience of that language in daily life. So, for example, if a person speaks one language at home and another outside the home, the home language will be associated with the activities and values of the home, and with the social role the speaker acts out at home (e.g. being a parent or a child, showing affection and other forms of emotion), whereas the other language will be associated, for example, with work. Bilinguals can then exploit those associations metaphorically (Blom and Gumperz 1972): for example, one study in Austria showed that bilingual Hungarians living in a German setting can use German amongst themselves to convey emphasis, anger or authority, a metaphorical extension of the facts that German-speakers are the socially dominant group in the town, that German is the language of government and of those who control the workplace, and that German is the language of the 'other', and so a means of conveying distance (Gal 1979).

Beyond situational, or social structural, separation there is the compounding factor of cultural differences: when people live in separate social spheres they develop different sets of beliefs, values and ways of behaving. Thus languages are associated with a whole range of 'meanings' proper to each sphere of life, and to speak each language is to call up literal and metaphorical meanings associated with them.

Meanings are directly derived from participation in social life. Social organization can be viewed as a series of social networks: people who bear certain relationships to other people, and who, in interaction, are expected or allowed to do certain things and act in certain ways (these are the rights and obligations attached to social roles). Language differences reflect the structure of social networks by reflecting the organization of shared knowledge and shared ways of talking. Thus access to social networks can mean access to language input, but maintenance of that access and proper acting out of the roles controlled by particular networks may depend on appropriate use of language. For example, a francophone who arrives in Toronto has the possibility of forming friendships and so gaining access to English linguistic input. The maintenance of those friendships, however, may depend on the use of English and upon acting the way these English-speakers act. For the francophone, then, two things have to be weighed: the attractiveness of the social opportunities gained by participation in English social networks versus those lost by so doing. At the same time the psychological costs of breaking old ties and re-forming one's social identity must be taken into account.

Thus three factors which must be discovered through ethnographic methods may have a direct impact on linguistic proficiency: (1) the extent to which the structure or organization of social networks permits access to input from speakers of the second language; (2) the extent to which the consequences of that access are perceived as attractive (this constitutes the source of language attitudes and contributes to motivational factors in language learning); finally, (3) through repeated interaction, new conventions of language use, involving all aspects of linguistic structure, may be formed, reflecting changes in social organization and experience. This factor, then, may be phrased as the extent to which access is turned into long-term social relationships through which speakers establish shared knowledge and shared ways of talking.

The social meaning of languages is thus derived from the rights and obligations attached to social roles acted out in social situations where those languages are normally used. Social meaning is related to proficiency in three ways: first, it reflects the sheer possibilities of access to the second language (more importantly, to useful second language input; Wong Fillmore 1980), and it points to the social organizational reasons for the existing structures of access; second, it explains motivational reasons for embracing or resisting the second language; third, it explains observed patterns of language use in terms of the way linguistic resources are exploited to make sense of daily experience, and in terms of the social constitution of linguistic conventions.

Rather than separating out grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic aspects of proficiency, this project tends to examine how each aspect influences the other in the context of everyday use of language in social interaction. The project thus focusses on context-embedded spoken language as the arena in which this mutual influence is most likely to take place, and as the form of language most important to the clientèle of the French-language elementary schools (not that written language is not considered important, but at this level spoken language seems primary).

1.3 Toronto French-language schools

French-language schools in Toronto are an important focus of research because they represent the only publicly-funded educational institutions in which instruction is entirely in the minority language (except for English classes, which begin in Grade 3). For the French minority they represent the major institutional structure of reception for francophone immigrants to Toronto, more important than the Church or any cultural organization. Part of their explicit purpose is the provision of a solid basis for the flourishing of both the French language and French culture (or French social identity) in Toronto. Thus, unlike immersion schools, French-language schools explicitly associate language and social identity.

In Metropolitan Toronto there are two French-language public elementary schools (one in Toronto and one in North York), one public high school (in North York), several Catholic elementary schools in Mississauga, five Catholic MSSB (Metropolitan Separate School Board) elementary schools and one French private school in Toronto. It was decided to focus on one MSSB elementary school since that represents the largest category. One purpose of this case study is to develop parameters along which to compare schools in a second stage to begin next year (see Section 3.0), and it was felt that the best basis for such future work would be an in-depth study of one school.

Fieldwork in this school, here called St-Michel (all the names of individuals, schools and other institutions are changed), began in mid-January, 1983. The first step involved participant observation two or three days a week in the school; this is to continue through to the end of the school year. Up to the end of March, I spent one or two weeks with each of seven of the school's fourteen teachers, in Grades 1, 3/4 (from Grade 3 on they have double grades), 5/6, 6/7, and 7/8, and in Special Education and Récupération Linguistique (remedial French for Grades 1 to 4, remedial English for Grades 4 through 8). This has enabled me to talk extensively with all the teachers and with many of the students, and to participate actively in school life, not only in the classroom but also in special activities at school outside the classroom.

Having acquired an overview of the organization of the school and of age differences in language use, I decided to focus on the level of Grades 7 and 8 for four reasons: (1) this is the age level in elementary school where peer groups have the strongest impact on behavioural conventions, an impact they will continue to have throughout adult life (Labov 1972:304-307); (2) students at this level are increasingly in contact with the world outside school and home; (3) after Grade 8 students must change schools, and since there is only one French-language high school and it is not Catholic and it is far away, a great deal of reflection on language and culture must go into the choice of secondary school; and (4) other studies in the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project focus on the Grade 7 level, so this will provide a point of comparison across groups. Participant observation has been confined to that classroom since the beginning of April, although some time has also been spent in Grade 6/7 (the two teachers rotate).

Starting in early May, audio tape-recordings were be made in Grade 7/8. Due to the fact that there is a double grade in one classroom, and due to the layout (two U-shaped tables next to each other) and to the flexibility of the layout, any video- or audio-recording of the whole classroom was ruled impractical. Instead, eight students were chosen as target students, and wore micro-cassette recorders which recorded their interactions through the course of the school day, inside and outside the classroom, for a total of two days each. The target population breaks down as follows:

Grade 7: A. girl, English mother tongue, from Toronto
B. boy, French mother tongue, from Quebec
C. boy, French mother tongue, from Toronto (parents from Quebec)
D. boy, French mother tongue, from France

Grade 8: E. girl, French mother tongue, from North Bay
F. boy, French mother tongue, from Toronto (father Italian)
G. boy, English mother tongue, from Toronto (mother Québécoise)
H. girl, French mother tongue, from France

B, D, F and H were chosen at random; A, C, E and G were selected by a teacher as representative of the major ethnolinguistic groups in the class. A preliminary selection of tapes will be made and transcribed, and the class will participate in the analysis of these interactions.

The purpose of the tape-recording is to obtain a record of language use in naturally-occurring situations from a sample of students who vary along what appear to be (on the basis of observation) the most relevant parameters: mother tongue, region of origin (the most important aspect of which concerns the conventions of language use of that community), and sex. Observed variation along these lines will be discussed further below. These recordings will be analysed from the points of view of language choice and language contact. Under these somewhat inadequate headings I am grouping phenomena such as:

(1) The association of certain languages with certain activities and/or with interaction with certain people. Such associations raise questions regarding where activities are learned, and questions regarding who makes the rules regarding how to behave in order to gain access to activities and in order to participate in them regularly, in short, to accomplish personal goals through talk. For example, some children who arrive at St-Michel and are unable to speak English are socialized into the use of English. Others resist and are ostracized; still others become leaders and impose a new norm of language, namely the use of French. Thus one important focus is the question of what linguistic skills in French and English are necessary to the formation of peer

relations, as well as to academic functions including communication in the classroom. Linguistic skills encompass more than simple language choice: they include the use of linguistic routines and structures in the accomplishment of conversational goals.

(2) The nature of those linguistic skills. Two phenomena that have been observed and deserve further study are bilingual wordplay or punning and code-switching (these will be further discussed below). Other issues to be investigated include the degree to which code-switching, borrowing and interference (or transfer) can be distinguished in the spoken language of the students, to what extent students opt for structures common to both languages, to what extent "other-language" forms are phonologically, morphologically, or syntactically integrated into the language being used, and what the patterns of code-switching actually are (Are they intra-sentential or inter-sentential? What seem to be the constraints in terms of the structure of the utterance and/or discourse?).

These two areas should provide information regarding the social conventions of language use and their effect on the nature and degree of proficiency in both or either language. Students' participation in the analysis will largely be in the form of a discussion of the goals of specific conversations, and of the meaning and usefulness of specific verbal strategies; they will also be asked to help reconstruct the process of interpretation in which certain utterances lead to certain responses and so on to a definable conversational outcome (e.g. a group leader is chosen, a decision is made regarding game rules, etc.). It is this process that is at the basis of the construction of social meaning, including the social meaning of language.

In addition to participant observation and conversation analysis, two other methods are being used: ethnographic interviewing and a questionnaire. Starting at the beginning of March, interviews have been carried out in the homes of parents. To date

18 have been carried out, and it is expected that a total of about 23 parents will be interviewed (this constitutes a 10 per cent sample, since the number of families at St-Michel is 227). Interviews are informal and open-ended, and have ranged between one to five hours in length. Most last two hours. Topics covered include: (1) patterns of language use by family members at home and in activities outside home and school; (2) participation by family members in social or cultural organizations; (3) social networks of family members; (4) motivations for choice of schools; (5) views on French-language education in Toronto in general and impressions of St-Michel in particular.

In collaboration with the St-Michel API (PTA) I have also drawn up a questionnaire which will be sent to all St-Michel parents. The questionnaire covers three major topics: (1) demographic characteristics (while School Board statistics have been made available to me they are not detailed enough for my purposes; for example there is no breakdown by province for origin of those born in Canada, and only single choices are permitted for primary language, thus obscuring actual language origins and practices especially in mixed-marriage households); (2) language use patterns at home and outside the home; (3) factors affecting school choices both in the past and estimated for the future (e.g. importance of religion, language, distance; length of residence in catchment areas, etc.). This questionnaire was sent to parents in May.

2.0 Preliminary analyses and hypotheses

While much of the data remains to be collected, it is nonetheless possible to discuss some preliminary analyses and derived hypotheses.

2.1 Heterogeneity

The population of the school is extremely heterogeneous, both from the point of view of the regional origin of students and from the point of view of their linguistic background.

Ten per cent were born outside Canada (in the U.S., Brazil, Chile, Uruguay, Haiti, Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Malta, Japan, Lebanon and some unidentified Asian and African countries). While details are not yet available it is known that a significant number of those born in Canada were born in, or have parents who were born in, Quebec, New Brunswick and the Western provinces. Many students born in Canada have parents who were born outside Canada. Finally, of those from Ontario many are from the predominantly francophone areas of the North. It thus seems clear that immigration from outside Canada and within Canada is influencing the make-up of the clientèle of this school. This is extremely important in the absence of any indication that the rural - urban trend of migration will be reversed, or that Toronto will cease to be the major focus of all types of immigration - the clientèle is thus likely to remain heterogeneous.

Approximately 62 per cent of students claim French as their primary language, and about 33 per cent claim English; however, since only one choice of language is allowed on school board forms it is clear that nuances are not reflected (see section 2.3 below on language use patterns). Of the remaining 5 per cent, primary languages claimed include Italian, Spanish, Arabic, German, Greek and Lithuanian. However, observation and interviews show that a large number of students are children of mixed marriages, in which it seems generally the case that the mother is francophone and the father is of English, Italian, Greek or other origin and often does not speak French. The questionnaire that is to be administered should provide more accurate data on parents' origin and linguistic preference than is presently available.

One other aspect of heterogeneity is typical of the francophone population of Toronto in general (Maxwell 1977): the dispersal of the population. Three areas of

Toronto have what might at best be called a vague concentration of francophones: clusters around the two French parishes of Sacré-Coeur (central Toronto east of Yonge and south of Bloor) and St-Louis-de-France (Don Mills/Scarborough), and around west-end industrial areas (the Lakeshore area of Etobicoke). However the population of St-Michel is scattered from the Lakeshore through Etobicoke, to Rexdale, North York, Downsview and High Park. Other schools draw from equally vast catchment areas.

2.1.1 Sources of Heterogeneity

While immigration explains the heterogeneity of the potential clientèle population, other factors must explain the heterogeneity of the actual clientèle population. A major factor appears to be a need for the school to recruit students, combined with the difficulty of setting admissions criteria, with the result that admissions tend to be inclusive rather than exclusive. That is, while the French schools are meant to be schools that function entirely in French for a French-speaking population, it is not necessarily the case, for reasons to be discussed below, that all the students arrive at school for the first time able already to speak French fluently. Some families are entirely non-francophone, some have one parent who speaks some French, and so on through the range to entirely monolingual francophone families.

Current criteria stipulate that one parent be able to speak French, or that the student must have been enrolled previously in a French-language school. Individual cases are decided by the superintendent of French-language schools (sometimes in conjunction with other School Board administrators, the school principal and/or the teacher in question). Thus a certain degree of latitude in the interpretation of criteria is permitted. The criteria are relatively unrestrictive, possibly in part due to the need to boost enrollment and in part due to the moral or ethical difficulty of defining criteria restrictively (since this might exclude ethnic French who have lost the language, or who have mixed marriages). A contributing factor, at least in the case of St-Michel, is historical: a nucleus of anglophone parents has been central in getting the school established and providing such important institutional supports as an attractive physical plant, universal busing and a CCLF (Comité Consultatif de Langue Française). The last two supports were obtained in conjunction with the other MSSB elementary French-language schools.

Though not as explicit as in other schools, there is at St-Michel a certain polarization of feeling regarding the goal of French-language education and hence policy regarding language use. In the past St-Michel was in some ways bilingual, in that English was used more often than it is now. The API (PTA) newsletter was in both languages until 1979, for example. This is related to the fact that the anglophone parents supported the school out of a belief in bilingualism: they felt, and still feel, that being bilingual is the best realization of being Canadian, and further, that being bilingual goes beyond just learning the language, it includes contact with the French and an understanding of their culture. Furthermore, being bilingual makes life more interesting and makes one a more interesting person. Thus even after immersion education became available, and even if it were available starting in kindergarten (in the MSSB it only starts in Grade 5), it still did not and would not be an adequate alternative. However, once certain francophone parents began, around 1978, to question the use of English, many anglophones came to agree with the ideological principle that the school should function only in French. Furthermore, many anglophones who have been heavily involved with the school now feel that the time has come for francophones to take over. Others, however, feel that non-francophone parents are made dependent on their children or francophone spouses for ties to the school, and they find this alienating.

Among francophones there are differences of opinion on this topic as well. Some say that, happy as they are that their children speak French, they have nothing at all against English, and, indeed, very much want their children to speak it. Others are concerned for the survival of French, and feel that measures must be taken to protect the French language in Toronto. Some feel that their children are so likely to learn English outside school that possibly the teaching of English at school should be postponed beyond the current Grade 3 starting point. For themselves they vary from rejection, to resentment, to acceptance of English. While they recognize the importance of anglophone activism in the school's history they feel that francophones should now take over. It has been noted, however, that school leadership requires two types of sociolinguistic skill: leaders must not only be able to lead parent meetings in French, they must also be persuasive in English dealings with the School Board.

Among parents of immigrant origin three kinds of attitude prevail. Some francophones tie French to their culture and their roots, and are concerned about differences between European French and Canadian French, and about the extent of English spoken at school. Others are less concerned that their children will lose their French. Both sets agree on the importance of English for functioning in Ontario society (but disagree as to the place of English in school). Parents for whom French is a second (or even third or fourth) language tend to be emotionally tied to French, to love the language, and to believe in the value of French on two counts: the cognitive advantages ("la gymnastique mentale" as one parent put it) of multilingualism, and the material advantages of multilingualism in Canadian society, and particularly of French/English bilingualism.

One interesting index of attitudes is the pattern of choice of secondary school and reasons given for that choice. Very few students actually go on to the French high school. It seems that those who do are students for whom (and for whose parents) it is normal to go to school in French: that is what one has always done. The distance of the school from the St-Michel area does discourage some students who might otherwise have gone there. One very popular choice is a Catholic high school which has a strong, though experimental and therefore perhaps not permanent, partial immersion program in Grades 9 and 10. This high school is in the same general catchment area as St-Michel. There are a few other Catholic high schools with partial immersion programs that are chosen. Finally, some students choose regular Catholic high schools because of location and/or because of the academic standards and quality of certain programs of those schools.

Thus motivational factors accounting for the presence of such a diverse population are equally varied, but vary predictably according to the extent to which the French language is associated with one's own cultural identity, with that of others, and/or with instrumental advantages. The other major factor concerns the degree of felt need for the protection of French language and identity and of integrative motivation (in either direction). On the whole the Québécois are most likely to feel a need for protection and least likely to be interested in integration (of course, Québécois interested in integration probably send their children to English schools). While anglophones are often interested in some form of integration many of them understand the argument for protection. For francophone Europeans and Ontarians there seems to be less of an issue: French is their language and so it is, of course, normal to want a French-language school. Some Europeans do voice a concern over the quality of Canadian French.

2.2 **Language Use**

2.2.1 The Teachers

At the moment the upshot of these varying points of view is a school policy for the exclusive use of French at school (outside of English classes). The teachers actively uphold this policy, and alternately encourage the students to speak only French and admonish them for not doing so. By now this is a well-known routine, so that one student could mime a teacher, saying "En français! If you want to speak English, go to an English school!" It is interesting to note that the only teacher who speaks any English at all outside English class is the only upper level teacher who does not have to teach English, and the only European who is in fact not very proficient in English. Only one other teacher is able to speak as little English as he is, and she is Québécoise and has been in Toronto only about a year (whereas he has been here at least seven years). His use of English is confined to certain routines ("Come on, you guys!" "All right!") and seems to have the role-distancing effect possible for someone for whom the second language (in this case English) is truly the language of the "other". The other teachers, being Canadian, cannot have this distance, or at least cannot manifest it in the school setting where their students are (mainly) bilingual Canadians. The Canadian teachers do in fact vary in their ability to speak English; some are perfectly bilingual, others less so, others have a moderate command of English, and only one has a very limited knowledge of the language (and she is the most recently arrived). Of the thirteen teachers one is European (French), four are from Quebec, and the rest are from Ontario (including one from Toronto; the others are from Timmins, Cornwall, Sudbury, and the North Bay area). The librarian is from Quebec City, as are two of the Québécois teachers. The other two Québécois are from Hull and the Laurentians.

One factor to be noted is that the teachers from Grade 3 up are expected to teach English (except for the Grade 7/8 teacher who rotates with the Grade 6/7 teacher). This means that monolingual francophones cannot be hired for these positions. The teachers themselves feel that it is a mistake to have one person teach in both languages - they say that once the students realize that they speak English they are less inclined to speak to them in French - the rule about French becomes less compelling, less believable. Most teachers find that the least agreeable aspect of their work is the enforcement of the French rule. They agree with this rule, but they find it tremendously frustrating and tiring to fight what appears to them to be an uphill battle: essentially they have taken on an extra task: they are not just teachers, they are also fighting for French. Sometimes, they feel, getting the students to speak French gets in the way of teaching, and they would like sometimes just to be able to teach. One teacher says that she rationalizes things by saying that if in five, ten or twenty years the students wish to return to French, maybe the basis they got in elementary school will still be there and they'll be grateful for it. Another teacher says that a major motivation for her to be teaching in the French system is the fear of losing her own French. Another says that at this point she's had it with the fatigue and frustration and she wants to switch jobs: she hopes to become a guidance counsellor in either the French or the English system.

2.2.2 The Classroom

Besides the explicit enforcement of the 'speak French' rule, teachers treat French and English in the following ways:

Both French and English (starting after Christmas in Grade 3) are approached through discussion of grammatical rules, oral expression, reading (texts), and writing (*dictées* for practising grammatical forms, *compositions* and *explications de texte*). Each of these activities is given equal time. With the exception of a few utterances on the part of the teacher or the few students whose English is poor, English classes are held entirely in English. Any French used is likely to be a re-statement of something said in English (in order to say it more clearly), the end of an utterance begun (but failed) in English, or disciplinary action. In the first two instances the discourse is often a description or explanation away from the text or prepared material. No English (with the above-mentioned expressions excepted) is used outside English class. Teachers discourage translation from English into French for such purposes as writing a composition, although the translation of vocabulary items is quite accepted if from English to

French; the other direction occurs but is less accepted or condoned. In general students are told to think in French when they write in French, and to circumlocute when a single lexical item is unknown. Dictionaries are readily available, but teachers prefer that students use French or English dictionaries, and not French-English dictionaries. Students will often help each other by providing vocabulary items. Teachers make a distinction between students who have a hard time expressing themselves, and those who are relatively weak in French or English - they do this mainly by comparing their performance in each. They feel that on the whole the majority of the students are English-dominant. They also note what appear to them to be instances of interference from English: e.g. *regarder pour* (*chercher*, from *to look for*), and *je faux*(t?), (I *must*). While the 'personal' use of *falloir* is common for the singular forms, I have never heard it for plural forms.

One teacher has noticed what seems to him to be a lack of French vocabulary for certain everyday activities. Some teachers feel that this sort of thing should be taught in school; others feel that they are not immersion or teachers of French as a Second Language, and that sort of thing should be learned at home.

It is generally remarked upon by teachers that material is in French or English. They occasionally use English material in class (outside English class) because French material is unavailable or not as good. Many educational films are in English; one teacher says she prefers English maths textbooks because they are more concrete, more direct, than the French ones. Texts come from Quebec or Ontario. Most English material is identical to that used in English Language Arts classes at the same age level in the English MSSB schools. Some teachers make a point of seeking out their own French material, especially when they make trips to Quebec. When they use English material they seem to assume that there will be no comprehension difficulties; only in one case was it clear that an effort was made: a boy in Grade 6, recently arrived from

Quebec, spoke very little English. His teacher suggested that he ask for help (ask his friends or his teacher) if he needed it.

2.2.3 The Students

Students' language choice patterns vary according to their place and language of origin and degree of socialization into the class peer groups. Most Toronto-born students prefer to speak English with their peers, whether or not they speak French at home. Francophone immigrants from Quebec, Europe or elsewhere, who arrive at school speaking no English, have one of several observed reactions. Many are quickly socialized into the use of English, beginning with routines ("shut up!" is often, it seems, one of the first). Others are put off by what seems to them to be their ostracism by others because they speak no English: they say that the other students don't play with them. One Grade 1 boy from France told his parents that a classmate told him that he wouldn't be invited to a birthday party because he didn't speak English. Some react to this by refusing to learn English and by making it clear to the others that they are proud of their French and their Québécois or French identity. One Québécoise in Grade 6 told a boy in her class whose French is very weak (he recently came to St-Michel from French immersion) that he was not "un français pure laine". The boy then went to ask his teacher "C'est quoi un français pure laine?". A Grade 4 boy from France corrects his peers' and his teacher's French (his teacher is from northern Ontario). This, of course, compounds the problem by alienating the peers even further. This is not an irreversible process: the Québécoise, for example, has recently begun to talk to herself in English. Also, other coping strategies can be found: one Québécoise in Grade 7 spends almost all her time with a girl from North Bay who is quite bilingual. It is the Ontarian girl who does most of the talking in English for both of them. This strategy also turns up in the classroom: when francophone students are judged sufficiently competent in English to participate in the regular English classes they will often have peers read their written work aloud for them, feeling that their written English may be all right, but they don't want to read aloud. Their reasons for not wanting to are worth exploring: to what extent is it a question of general shyness, of cultural identity or greater competence in written than in spoken English?

One Québécois boy in Grade 3 seems to have a great deal of influence. After seven months in Ontario he speaks little English, and so, as with other monolingual francophones, he is spoken to only in French. However, he has high status, he is "cool", and so a lot of activity among Grade 3 boys centres around him and takes place in French. What makes him "cool"? I was not able to observe long enough to say for sure, but one aspect of his behaviour that seems notable is the fact that he often acts as spokesman; he is the one who talks back to the teacher or who lobbies for the boys' interests with the teacher. This raises the interesting point that, although most of the teachers are able to speak English, they insist upon being spoken to in French: as a result, in order to deal with the teacher students have to have skills in French (persuading, explaining, arguing) that are similar to the English skills they need in other relationships, despite the differences in status and power that characterize them.

2.3 Language Use Patterns

A clear look at language use will come out of the analysis of the tape-recordings. Several patterns have, however, already been observed, and will be examined more closely. These patterns include:

2.3.1 Code-switching. This follows several different patterns, including intersentential (utterance to utterance in one speaker's turn), intrasentential (within an utterance), and turn-to-turn. A related pattern is the use of one language by one speaker and another by his or her interlocutor. Patterns of code-switching tend to reflect patterns of social relations in multilingual communities, and vary according to, among other things, whether conversation is between members of the same group or between members of different groups (Heller 1982). The complex set of patterns exhibited here is a reflection of the complex nature of the social relations in the heterogeneous school population. Here, turn-to-turn switching seems to occur mainly when one of the French-dominant students is involved. Intrasentential switching seems to occur mainly between bilingual peers who have spent some time together at St-Michel (one example: a Grade 8 girl, discussing the Science Fair contestants with another Grade 8 girl: "Yes, but they're not all aussi bien, they're not all at the same niveau"). Another pattern used by these students is intersentential switching. Finally, one notable phenomenon is the use of English for side comments ("Um", "oh okay", "gimme a chance", "just a minute", "all right") when presentations are being given in French. Even students who show no evidence of even lexical gaps in French do this.

The phenomenon of code-switching will be a particularly important one to study, not only for what it reveals about the interrelationship of ethnic identity, the social meaning of French and English, and the practical issues of the management of everyday interpersonal interaction and social identity. It also is an important clue as to the nature of speakers' linguistic competence in both French and English: Poplack (1980) for example, has argued that the most proficient switchers (people who can produce intra-sentential switches) are the most proficient speakers of both the languages involved. Code-switching, in other words, far from being an index of weak competence in both languages or in one of the languages, is itself rule-governed linguistic behaviour that requires a certain proficiency of its own, beyond (but based on) the proficiency characteristic of each of the contributing languages. It will be important here, I believe, to distinguish different levels of linguistic production: beyond the sociolinguistic considerations of the appropriateness of code-switching, there is the consideration of what linguistic material is code-switched. While much switching revolves around lexical items, I believe these items must be treated separately, since they reveal more about the social conditions under which words are learned (words like *dictée* and *devoir* tend not to be translated; similarly, many students do not know the French equivalents of *collect call*, *phone booth*, etc.) and less about the structure of their grammars - that is, they form [illegible] lexical, not grammatical, questions. Forms like: *I'm nettoying my desk* (Grad[illegible] *jouing* (Grade 1), *Je toujours parle* (Grades 3-6), *Je regarde pour Marie* (Grades 3-7), and so on, raise important questions regarding the relationships of code-switching, bilingual word-play, convergence and interference to each other, on the lexical and grammatical levels of linguistic structure. An equally crucial question is the extent to which non-standard forms represent transitional, developmental phases in language learning, or fossilized, conventionalized forms proper to this "mini-speech-community". Longitudinal studies, or comparisons with older students of similar backgrounds (cf. Mougeon and Beniak 1981) would be useful in investigating this issue. A comparison with French immersion data would also be useful in order to study the impact of different types of French-language settings. A look at the extent to which French-dominant or monolingual francophone students at St-Michel pick up these forms would elucidate the role of family language background and of peer group verbal patterns in the formation of linguistic conventions. In any case, it seems clear that some set of code-switching conventions does operate in St-Michel peer groups; tape-recording will allow closer analysis of these conventions and will provide data regarding the extent to which code-switching may be related to other conventions of bilingual usage.

2.3.2 Bilingual word-play or puns. Examples:

(1) Two Grade 6 boys:

A: March break

B: mars craquer

Both boys laugh hysterically and repeat the joke several times.

(2) During a dictée, in Grade 7/8:

Teacher: tantôt...

(pause)

Student: sings theme from The Lone Ranger, presumably referring to Tonto

The importance of this wordplay is that it is funny; it would not be in the least funny if students did not share a notion of what is normal, conventional. Things are humourous because they break the conventions in specific ways, they make unexpected links with different, and supposedly separate, realms of experience.

3.0 Future directions

This study will contribute to the future studies of the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project in two ways. First, it will help to define the appropriate questions to be asked in the sociolinguistic survey of the francophone community, as well as contributing to the choice of sample for that survey. It will also provide context-embedded natural language data which may be compared to the test data to be collected. Second, it will lead to further ethnographic studies. This case study has revealed the importance of heterogeneity; it will be important to discover whether the same environmental conditions obtain in other French-language schools in Toronto, whether similar patterns of language use exist there, and whether other factors (such as age or socio-economic status) influence language use. At present four shorter follow-up studies are envisioned, one in each of the following types of school:

(1) the one French-language public elementary school in Toronto. This school may have an even more heterogeneous clientèle, since the restrictive factor of religion is removed;

(2) the one French-language high school in Toronto. Here the principle of self-selection is important, since to attend this school many students must travel great distances (some come from areas as distant as, for example, Oshawa and Mississauga). Further, developmental factors may play a role;

(3) a Catholic French-language elementary school with a catchment area characterized by low socio-economic status, to determine the importance of SES as a factor;

(4) a Catholic high school with an immersion program which attracts many of the graduates of St-Michel, to determine the long-term pattern of language choice and bilingual proficiency of those graduates.

4.0 Conclusion

Two patterns stand out as central to the understanding of the use and meaning of French and English at St-Michel.

First, the extreme heterogeneity of the student population means that there are different perspectives on the question. For a large number of students French is the language of school; for others it is also the language spoken with one or both parents at home, and/or with relatives in Quebec, New Brunswick, or France or Belgium. It is not the language, however that accurately reflects their daily experience with English. With the exception, then, of those who have recently arrived from francophone areas and who know they will soon return there (such as a group of Québécois whose parents are on two-year or one-year transfers to Toronto from their jobs in Quebec), most St-Michel students see themselves as bilingual, and bilingualism as the goal to be attained. This is true whether they are anglophones seeking to learn French or francophones seeking to preserve their French.

But the heterogeneity of origin produces a situation in which most classes are composed of students at varying degrees of competence in French and English. It seems that it is largely the students who develop coping strategies, relying on the most bilingual students to mediate for the English- or French- dominant students in the different situations where one or the other language is being used. In this way, in some respects, the bilingual students may in fact get to increase their competence through mediating for others. They have greater access to language use and language input (to which they must attend, since someone else is dependent on their understanding). This is a hypothesis that will be further investigated.

This heterogeneity, then, accurately reflects the complex experience of most of the students, an experience reflected in the second pattern, that of varied uses of French and English. Everyone, at some point, at least hears both French and English every day, both languages form part of the internal structure of their everyday lives. As indicated in section 2.3.1, patterns of code-switching reflect the different perspectives on that experience, the different meaning and structure of that experience, for the different groups of students at St-Michel.

So what of social meaning and bilingual proficiency? A first distinction must be made between those for whom the French language is intimately tied up with social, and personal, identity, and those for whom it is not. For those who feel French, a choice generally presents itself: resistance to or openness to learning English. At this level personality probably makes the difference as to choice, although parental pressures probably are also important. For the others French is more or less a question of social identity, but on the whole bilingualism more accurately reflects their experience than dominance in French with instrumental, practical skills in English. It is certain that both the students and the teachers (as well as parents and administrators, although less directly) have to deal with the fact that St-Michel is not, and for the present cannot be, a French school in the strict sense of the term. Nor is it by any means an immersion school. What needs mediating, then, is the tension between the ideal of French linguistic competence as part of French identity, and the reality: a heterogeneous population, heterogeneous from the point of view of social identity (including which French identity, since there are many) and linguistic competence. For many students the solution is a bilingual identity, and bilingual usage.

The second stage of this project will look more closely at language use, in order to determine the ways in which linguistic output is related to the pressures of personal and social goals within and without daily life at school.

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APPENDIX H

Memo To: DBP Committee
Merrill, Jim, Raymond, Sharon, Birgit, Virginia, Grace,
Jose, Mary Lou C., Mary Lou K., Patrick, Maria, Gila,
Jan, Monica, Nina

From: Roma Chumak (10-206)

Date: February 1983

Recording Mother-Child Language in the Minority Home

Following is a summary of my field notes (observations, obstacles, difficulties) since the time I started making preparations to record mother-child language behaviours in the Ukrainian home. (November 1982). Two areas will be described here:

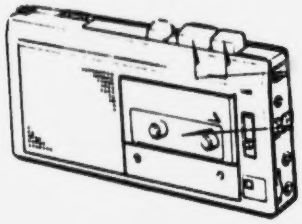
1. equipment
2. home visits

1. Equipment

From the very beginning, an attempt was made to replicate the home recording procedures described by Gordon Wells in his 1972 Bristol Longitudinal Study of Language Development. After almost two months of consultation with electronic technicians and designers, two sets of receiver-recorder-transmitter were prepared for testing. Also, plans and design were drawn for a complex voice activating device to be built into the larger system. Plywood was ordered to construct a large box which was to conceal the equipment. Two aprons (which were to hold the transmitters) were sewn out of colourful material. These were to be worn by the children. Total cost of the two complete systems was estimated at $2,000.00.

Several testing sessions showed that the equipment was inadequate: a combination of "white noise" (a loud whooshing sound) and sporadic blanks (which no one could explain) in the PLAY BACK mode drowned out the language recorded and would make transcribing impossible.

After more thinking, planning, consulting and testing, a micro cassette recorder was tested and ordered. A description follows:



The AIWA (Model TP-M7) Micro Cassette Recorder is presently being used to tape language behaviours of Ukrainian mother-child pairs. The cassette has the following features which make it most suitable and appropriate for the recording of spontaneous and naturalistic language in the home:

1. size: very compact and lightweight: 5¼ X 3 X ½ inches

2. cost: $200.00

3. voice activating device: (built in)
When no language occurs during the recording session, the cassette automatically goes into the PAUSE mode. The human voice (or a loud noise) will again place the cassette into the RECORD/ON mode. This is an important feature as it saves long silent passages from being recorded.

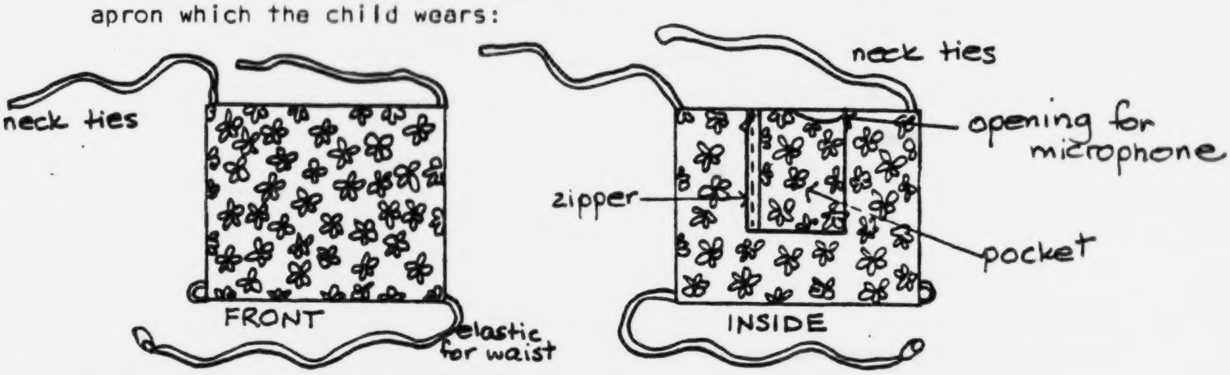
4. tapes:
OLYMPUS XZ 90 micro cassette
Recording Time: 90 min. (45X2) at 2.4 cm./sec.
180 min. (90X2) at 1.2 cm./sec.
These tapes are expensive ($16.00 each) but can be purchased directly from W.CARSEN CO. LTD. for $10.00 each.
On slow speed, with the voice activator in play, one side of the 90 minute tape will record for a maximum of three hours and fifteen minutes.

This is important as there is no need for the mother to concern herself with the recorder during the taping sessions - no need to change tapes, time the sessions etc.
It seems that asking the mother to change the tape would make her aware of the recording. This in turn might result in language behaviour which would not be spontaneous and naturalistic. Also, changes in mother's speech would result in some changes in the child's language.

The recorded sessions are copied onto a standard c-90 minute cassette and the recorded language is erased from the micro tape. This allows for repeated use of the micro tape.

5. Procedure:

The micro cassette recorder is placed into an inside pocket of an apron which the child wears:



Also, a "dummy" is available for the mother. It is sewn in the same way, from the same colourful material with a block of wood in the "pocket. When mother invites her child (age 3 and 4) to put on the aprons ie."Let's put them on." the session becomes a joint activity/game and there are fewer problems with children refusing to wear the apron.

2. Home Visits

Several well planned visits to the home before the actual taping begins are a crucial part of the data collection. It is important to visit the home with "spacial", age-appropriate materials (books, games, toys, picture cards) These interest the young child, help establish a fast rapport and will help the mother later as she invites the child to wear the "apron."

Preparatory home visits, then, are important for the following reasons:

1. Informal chats with mother over coffee provide a great deal of information about:
   - parental language attitudes, language expectations
   - views on the importance of maintaining the minority lang. in the home
   - linguistic concerns
   - family language behaviour (rules, decisions, activities)
   - concerns about home-school language mismatch
   - bilingualism
2. During the preparatory home visits, there is opportunity for the investigator to observe mother-child interaction. This will be important for comparing the naturalness of the interaction (language use) to the taped sessions.
3. Spending several short periods of time with the child during the home visits will reveal a great deal about the literacy behaviour in the home:
   - child's attitudes towards books
   - parental reading habits
   - child's personal collection of books
   - child's ability to "read" (retell) a favorite story

Explanation to Parents/Mothers

All the families I contacted were interested and anxious to participate in the study. They all had questions about my work, especially reasons for choosing child language as a thesis topic. Telling them "I'm interested in children's language" or "I want to document how the young child learns his/her mother tongue in the home context", was not enough. They asked about linguistics, psychology, child psychology and seemed very interested in what I plan to do with the recorded sessions.

It was necessary to describe my purpose with a focus on the language of the child.

Field Notes

As the preparatory home visits were very informal (ie. not taped) it was important to list/record observations and relevant information immediately following each visit. A quick way of doing this is to date each visit and record highlights in point form.

Other Relevant Observations

1. Actual Data

Initially, the first taping session was to be discarded and not considered actual data. It was to be viewed as preparatory - a time for both mother and child to become familiar with the equipment and the taping situation. However, it became evident just a few minutes after the taping began (ie. 2 - 5 minutes) that mother and child behaved naturally and spontaneously. There was a very short discussion about wearing the "aprons" followed by routine and very natural mother and child language use.

2. Contextual Information

Following each recording session, the mother is asked to provide contextual information - details and explanations of the morning's activities and household happenings. Surprisingly, all the mothers (to date) provide very little contextual information, almost amazed by my question, and describe the morning as "ordinary" and "regular". (ie."we got dressed, had breakfast - you know, the regular activities")

Initially this appeared problematic. Transcribing the tapes, again showed me that children's language is context bound and the details can be easily obtained from the language used by mother and child.

3. Quality of the Recorded Language

The language samples collected to date can be described as "high quality", naturalistic and spontaneous. Because the investigator is not present during the taping sessions, and because the equipment is very compact and unobtrusive,(- with no need for mother to adjust or regulate -) the mothers and children behave naturally and almost appear unaware that every word (for three hours) is being recorded.

APPENDIX I

Control over Grammaticality in Meaningful and Anomalous Sentences Among Monolingual and Bilingual Children: A Pilot Study[1]

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In a recent chapter (Bialystok & Ryan, in press), we have argued for the value of separating two dimensions of metalinguistic ability. These potentially separable, but typically overlapping dimensions are analyzed knowledge and cognitive control. Traditionally, some definitions of metalinguistic ability have emphasized the former (e.g., Downing, 1979; Gleitman, Gleitman, & Shipley, 1972), others have stressed the need for control over attention to language features (e.g., Cazden, 1974; Hakes, 1980), and still others have merged the two aspects (e.g., Vygotsky, 1962). In our proposed framework, these two dimensions are considered to be continuous rather than dichotomous; and tasks are viewed as varying on both dimensions. One of the key implications of our analysis is that new tasks must be developed which permit identification of the contributions of each of these dimensions.

The present project was designed to assess the effects of separately manipulating requirements for cognitive control and analyzed linguistic knowledge in metalinguistic tasks. Since grammaticality judgments have been central in discussions and investigations of metalinguistic development (Bialystok, 1979; deVilliers & deVilliers, 1972, 1974; Gleitman, et al., 1972; Ryan & Ledger, in press; Scholl & Ryan, 1975, 1979), they form the basis for this initial study.

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Sentence judgments can be viewed as requiring similar control (i.e., attention to grammatical structure rather than meaning) but less analyzed knowledge of the specific grammatical forms and rules than sentence correction, another typical metalinguistic task. Two new tasks have been developed to increase the control burden by providing a compelling meaning-based alternative to grammatical form for judgments and for corrections. Thus, children in this study made grammatical judgements for sentences, half of which were meaningful and half anomalous. Similarly, corrections were made for sentences which were both ungrammatical and anomalous.

In addition to task evaluation, we tested the hypothesis that English-speaking children in French immersion classes would show better control over their native language than children in regular classes (see Cummins, 1978; Ianco-Worrall, 1972; Vygotsky, 1962). In the early grades, however, when little native language instruction is provided, they would be expected to show less analyzed knowledge of English.

Method

Subjects

Children from two middle-class schools participated. One regular and one French immersion class were selected from both grade 2 and grade 4 in each. Parental consent was obtained for all the 161 participants.

A written adaptation of the WISC-R forward digit span task was administered to all the children. No significant differences in short term memory were found between the immersion and regular groups.

Materials

Forty-two sentences were constructed, with half violating one grammatical rule. For each meaningful sentence, an anomalous sentence was constructed by altering one word. Examples of the stimulus sentences for each type of grammatical deviation are presented in Table 1. The same sentence frames were employed for the meaningful and anomalous tasks, with the alternation of the single word determining meaningfulness. Three additional, unscored meaningful sentences were included in the anomalous correction task in order to inhibit a set for anomaly. For matching purposes, these sentences were also included, but not scored, in the meaningful correction task. Each of the four tasks was accompanied by three to four practice items. Only one random assignment of grammaticality for the judgment task and one random ordering of all the sentences was employed. All materials were presented in written form.

Procedure

Children were tested in their classrooms in two sessions. During the first session, the children completed the normal judgment and correction tasks as well as half of the digit span task. During the second session, they completed the anomalous judgment and correction task and the second half of the digit span task. Children were given instructions to focus upon grammatical structure in all tasks (and to ignore difficulties with meaning in the latter two tasks) and were given practice with several items beforehand. The experimenter read each sentence aloud so that reading problems (especially for the younger and French immersion children) would not detract from performance.

Results

The means for each group on each of the four tasks are presented in Table 2. As expected analyses of variance yielded grade effects on all tasks, but the ceiling effect evident for the grade 4 children was not expected (see Forrest-Pressley, in press). Of principal interest, both judgment and correction scores were diminished in the anomalous condition, indicating that the task manipulation had the desired effect on the children's ability to focus their attention on the grammatical structure.

Table 1

Sample Meaningful and Anomalous Sentences for Seven Types of Ungrammaticality

---

A. Subject-Verb Agreement

m: Children loves to play in the white snow.

a: Children loves to play in the green snow.

B. Verb Forms

m: Mom didn't gave us cookies because we were bad.

a: Mom didn't gave us cookies because we were good.

C. Double Negatives

m: There isn't no snow in the summer.

a: There isn't no snow in the winter.

D. Comparative/Superlative Forms

m: Dogs are bigger as ants.

a: Dogs are bigger as elephants.

E. Prepositions

m: We love to eat pancakes in breakfast.

a: We love to eat toys in breakfast.

F. Wh-questions

m: What the dog is eating?

a: What the dish is eating?

G. Verb Particles

m: The man put on his hat on.

a: The fish put on his hat on.

Table 2

Mean Proportion Correct for Judgment and Correction Tasks

	Meaningful Sentences		Anomalous Sentences	
	Judgment	Correction	Judgment	Correction
Grade 2				
Regular (N=33)	.84	.77	.74	.67
Immersion (N=50)	.80	.70	.70	.69
Grade 4				
Regular (N=41)	.92	.94	.84	.91
Immersion (N=37)	.92	.93	.91	.92

Although analyses of variance yielded no significant differences between immersion and regular groups, the trends obtained for the grade 2 children are generally in line with the double prediction. The children in the regular program did show more analyzed knowledge on the initial correction task than the immersion children, and the decline due to anomaly was smaller for the immersion children on both judgment and correction tasks. A further analysis of the proportion of anomalous sentences whose meaning was corrected (alone or in addition to a grammatical correction) showed an advantage for the immersion children (17.1%) as compared to the children in regular grade 2 classes (22.9%).

Discussion

The findings supported the increased control burden of the two new tasks. However, the effect was not as sizeable as expected. In particular, the grade 4 children exhibited a ceiling effect on all tasks. Even for the grade 2 children, the performance decline under the meaning-distracting anomalous condition was not strong. The written format might well have enabled the children to inhibit their meaning orientation, since reading is a more form-oriented activity than listening. On the basis of these results, further work with these tasks will be continued with younger children (kindergarten through grade 2) and with an oral listening format.

Whereas both groups were affected similarly by these manipulations, immersion children showed a tendency to be more resistant to the meaning anomalies in their corrections even though their original correction levels did indicate somewhat weaker analyzed knowledge (as predicted). The lack of significant effects for these differences is presumably due to the low sensitivity to individual and developmental differences of this initial version of the task. Current work with the adaptations described above is being conducted with additional groups of children in regular and French immersion classes.

Research is also continuing into the development of tasks where the control and/or knowledge burdens are separately assessed. In addition to grammatical judgments and corrections, paradigms in which control and analyzed knowledge are separately manipulated have been developed for sentence anagram, sentence repetition, word discrimination, and word identification.

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